



**DE MONTFORT
UNIVERSITY
LEICESTER**

**Towards Organisational Cultural Alignment of
Strategic Information Systems Planning (SISP)
Methodologies**

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A thesis presented to

DE MONTFORT UNIVERSITY

in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

August 2000

ABSTRACT

It appears that current Strategic Information Systems Planning (SISP) methodologies (for example, Critical Success Factors (CSF), Value Chain Analysis Cycle) have been developed in western countries, such as the UK and the USA. According to Hofstede (1984), trying to develop a system in one country and implement it in another is bound to be problematic since both national culture and organisational culture are likely to differ. Lyberras et al. (1993) suggest that organisational culture must be taken into account when undertaking SISP and known IS planning frameworks should be amended to fit specific cultural contexts.

The critical analysis of the literature indicates that the existing approaches are unable to provide a sufficiently complete classification of organisational culture. Moreover, these approaches are unable to describe the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology. Hence organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology cannot be mapped onto a single current approach in order to investigate the mismatches or agreements between them. This research presents an initial conceptual framework for this purpose.

A clear justification for considering organisational culture prior to strategic activity has been established. A method for investigating organisational culture has been developed. This has been used to investigate the organisational culture of the National Bank of Pakistan (NBP), and the culture accommodated by the CSF. The analysis suggests that the organisational culture of NBP is: high-power distance, high-uncertainty avoiding, non-participating, non-consulting, non-compromising, individualism and preferring quantity over quality of work. In contrast, the CSF methodology accommodates a culture which is: low-power distance, low-uncertainty avoiding, collective, participating, consulting, compromising and preferring of quality over quantity assurance. The possible mismatches and agreements between them are explored with the help of the framework. This has led to recommendations regarding the enhancement of the CSF methodology and/or NBP's organisational culture for cultural alignment.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The completion of this research was facilitated by the great help, assistance and encouragement from a number of individuals and organisations in several different respects. The financial assistance was provided by the government of Pakistan and administered by the High Commission for Pakistan in the UK. The University of the Punjab contributed by granting leave of absence from employment. The Institute for the Management of Information Systems (IMIS) is greatly acknowledged for providing finance for the field work in Pakistan. The National Bank of Pakistan contributed assistance in the case study in many ways.

Certainly its a pleasant obligation to thank my director of studies Professor Simon Rogerson for his encouragement, support and guidance during the course of this research. He was a source of inspiration throughout this period. Working under his supervision has been surely a nice experience. I am particularly grateful to Dr. Christine Fidler who introduced me to the field of SISP with all its intricacies and nice aspects. She was my first director of studies but unfortunately in the middle of this study, she became sick and was replaced by Professor Simon Rogerson. Her valuable guidance remained available during her sickness. She was kind enough to become one of my supervisors again after attaining her health. Moreover, she was kind enough to critically review this work. Indeed, she deserves more thanks than any one else. I would further like to thank my supervisors Dr. Nick Longford and Dr. Simon Bennett, for the supervision of the quantitative and qualitative analysis in the research and critical review of the manuscript. They also acted as constant sources of guidance, and initiated many useful and fruitful discussions. I wish to express my profound gratitude to Professor Frank Stowell for helping in gathering the ideas and directions at the start of this research.

I would like to thank to all my senior and junior research fellows especially, Dr. Ben Fairweather, Dr. Anne Clare Chisnall, Lee Topping, Xiajian Wu, Laonie Butler, and Sara

Wilford for their help and guidance. I would especially like to thank Mohamed Begg for all the beneficial times we spent together. All the members of the staff at the Department of Information Systems, School of Computing Sciences and Research Unit, De Montfort University, are gratefully acknowledged for being helpful and friendly.

I am short of words in acknowledging the love and support given to me by my mother, who did not live long enough to see this get finished, though she would be the happiest person if she were around. Finally, I like to express my gratitude to my wife and two children, who have been very helpful, supporting and source of encouragement during the entire research.

Leicester,

April 2000

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Full Text
BSP	Business Systems Planning
CAD	Computer Aided Design
CRLC	Customer's Resources Life Cycle
CSF	Critical Success Factor
DMU	De Montfort University
FIAC	Financial Institutions Assurance Corporation
IMIS	Institute for the Management of Information Systems
IS	Information Systems
ISP	Information Systems Planning
IT	Information Technology
KPI	Key Performance Indicator
MIT	Massachusetts Institute of Technology
MS	Microsoft
NBP	National Bank of Pakistan
OFF	Organisational Fit Framework
SAS	Statistical Analysis Software
SISP	Strategic Information Systems Planning
SOG	Strategic Option Generator
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
VCA	Value Chain Analysis

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Chapter One

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Rationale in Brief

Competition in business is stronger than ever before (Ho, 1995). Information Systems (IS) can provide an organisation with a competitive advantage in the marketplace (Watson et al., 1991; McKeown and Leitch, 1993; Doherty, et al., 1999), and can open up new opportunities and new ways of conducting business. The remarkable success of some users in improving their market positions by the use of IS has set a precedent for others to follow. Some of the prominent and most frequently cited examples are Pizza Hutt, Otis Elevator, Citicorp and McKesson Corporation (Wysocki and Young, 1990; Robson, 1997), American Airlines, American Hospital Supplies (Wysocki and Young, 1990; Remenyi, 1991; Ciborra, 1994; Ward and Griffiths, 1996; Robson, 1997), French Videotex, Teletel (known by the name of the PTT terminals, Minitel) (Ciborra, 1994), Thomson's Holidays, Merrill Lynch, General Tire and Pitney-Bowes, United Airlines, ICI and Dun and Bradstreet (Ward and Griffiths, 1996; Robson, 1997), Digital Equipment Corporation (DEC), Dow Jones, McGraw-Hill, Federal Express, Kraft Foodservice (Robson, 1997). Other organisations have also had to implement IS for survival and for future success (Crnkovic and Holstein, 1995; Fidler and Rogerson, 1996).

However, not all IS are so successful. IS can fail during development, at the stage of implementation or at some point during their operation. IS that do not reflect the business need and user's requirements are likely to; receive a negative reaction because of lack of participation and ineffective communication during planning and development between IS and users (Liebowitz, 1999). In fact, there is a widespread recognition by IS professionals

that social and behavioural factors are more important aspects of IS failures than the technical (Sauer, 1993; Roepke et al., 2000).

The successful use of IS within companies requires a strategic IS plan that is aligned with business objectives. Without such a plan, companies may lose opportunities, duplicate effort across departments, develop incompatible systems and, in general, waste resources (Lederer and Sethi, 1988; Raghunathan and King, 1988; and Sethi and Lederer, 1997). Strategic Information Systems Planning (SISP) enables organisations to identify the most desirable IS for a company, and to develop a strategic IS plan for their effective implementation (Fidler and Rogerson, 1996; Lederer and Salmela, 1996). A SISP methodology can provide help and guidance in this regard. The adoption of a SISP methodology can ensure a more satisfactory planning process than if no specific methodology is used (Doll, 1985; Remenyi, 1991; Rogerson and Fidler, 1994; Cerpa and Verner, 1998).

Earl (1996C) warns that SISP methodologies are too complex or time-consuming. Moreover, Hackney and Little (1999) state that the strategy process is generally unpredictable and changing. Watson et al. (2000) argue for dynamic approaches to SISP which incorporate elements which are evolutionary, processual and systemic on the grounds that IS strategy is often complex and unpredictable, and existing approaches (methodologies) are too simplistic and rigid to meet the SISP needs of changing organisations and they do not provide any guideline for the use of such dynamic approaches. Hence, till the time of development of guidelines for dynamic approaches, organisations have to rely on the existing available methodologies which have already been tested and applied by several organisations.

However, each methodology available in the market is developed in a particular socio-economic and historical setting. Implementing any system developed in one culture for use in another culture may cause problems, as academics such as Hofstede (1980) and Shore

and Venkatachalam (1996) have observed. Companies reflect their own organisational culture, which in turn is influenced by the national culture or cultures into which the organisation is embedded. Where necessary, SISP methodologies should be amended to fit with the prevailing organisational culture (Calingo, 1991; Lybereas et al., 1993) so that conflict is less likely to occur resulting in abandonment and non-use. It is towards this end that the research described in this thesis is oriented.

1.2 Research Aims

The aims of this research are, specifically, to:

1. Develop an initial conceptual framework for use in the process of systematically describing the organisational culture as perceived by the employees of a company and the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology.
2. Develop an approach as to how to:
 - a. identify any mismatches and agreements between the perceived organisational culture of a company and the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology.
 - b. articulate how a SISP methodology and/or an organisational culture might be altered to ensure cultural alignment.
3. Undertake an investigation of a case organisation and a case methodology using the developed framework and approach in order to illustrate their potential usefulness.

1.3 Research Approach

The overall approach to this research is summarised in Figure 1.1. This section describes the major steps in this research. A critical literature review was undertaken into several important subject domains, in particular the existing literature on cultures in general and on organisational culture in particular, and the literature relating to IS, SISP and SISP methodologies. From this basis, an initial conceptual framework was developed which

provides the foundations for systematically describing both the culture of an organisation and the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology. A set of SISP methodology factors was also developed for the intermediate representation of the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology. At the same time, an example organisation - National Bank of Pakistan (NBP) - and an example SISP Methodology - the Critical Success Factors (CSF) Methodology - were selected and authorisation to proceed with the research within the company was granted.

Both quantitative and qualitative research methods were employed in assessing the organisational culture of NBP. Using the framework, a questionnaire tailored to the Banking sector was developed, piloted and then used in 104 branches of NBP to assess NBP's organisational culture. Analysis of the quantitative data collected via the questionnaire-based survey was achieved using Statistical Analysis Software (SAS). Odds ratio and Fisher's exact test (Anderson and Finn, 1996; Rudas, 1998) were performed as measures of association between responses to questions.

The qualitative research was undertaken primarily to strengthen the validity of the results that emerged from the aforementioned quantitative analysis. The qualitative research took the form of semi-structured interviews and observations, and was analysed using Grounded Theory (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). The end result was that the qualitative data was in line with the results from the quantitative data analysis, thereby achieving its original aim. It should be noted that their work (1997) builds upon their original concepts. Further, the 2nd edition of Strauss and Corbin (1998) still utilises the concepts developed in the 1st edition (1990).

Based on the initial conceptual framework, a set of SISP methodology factors was derived by which the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology could be assessed. This enabled the researcher to map the CSF methodology culture description into the same vocabulary set as that being used for NBP's organisational culture i.e. via initial conceptual

framework. The standard vocabulary made it easy to compare NBP's organisational culture to the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology. The comparison showed up both mismatches and agreements between the two. This provided a systematic basis for discussing changes to either SISP methodology and/or organisational culture, to ensure greater cultural alignment.

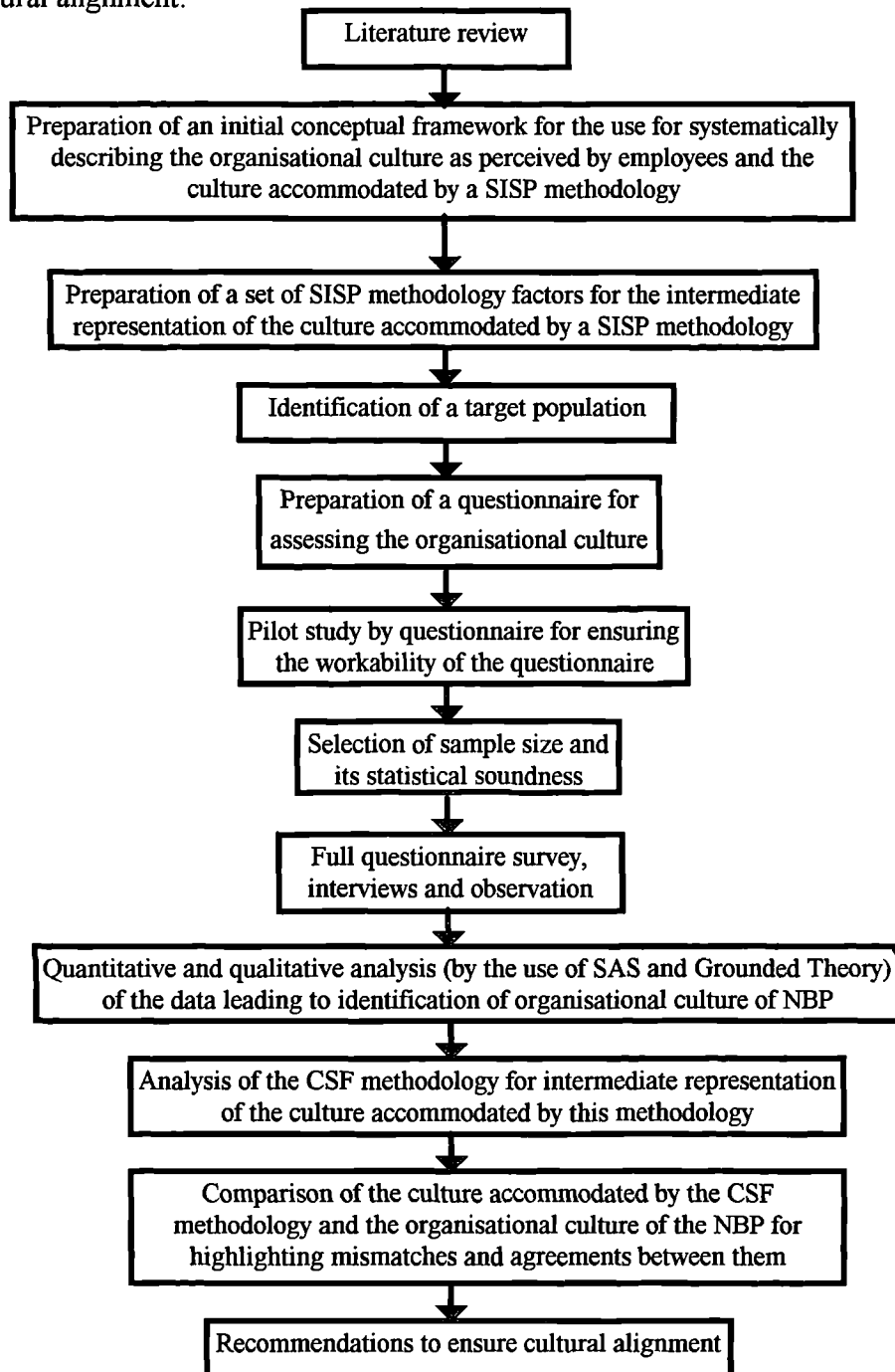


Figure 1.1 An overview of sequential stages of research approach

1.4 Results and Contribution

This section summarises the results and the contribution of the research. The quantitative and qualitative data were collected to assess the organisational culture as perceived by the employees of NBP. The qualitative data has strengthened the validity of the quantitative data. The organisational culture as perceived by employees of NBP and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology are described using the initial conceptual framework developed for this purpose. The analysis suggests that there are some mismatches and agreements between the organisational culture of NBP and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology (see Figure 1.2).

Organisational Culture of NBP	Culture Accommodated by the CSF Methodology
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • autocratic • high-power distance • high-uncertainty avoiding • individualism • non-participative • non-consultative • non-compromising • unquestioning • internal focus • conservative • strict adherence to procedures and policies • predictability of resources due to central control • quantitative assurance • predictable resources • IS mandatory 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • democratic culture • low-power distance • low-uncertainty avoidance • collective • participative • consultative • compromising • questioning • both internal and external foci • radical • guidance for procedures and policies • predictability of resources due to its planning • qualitative assurance • predictable resources • IS mandatory

Figure 1.2 An overview of NBP's organisational culture and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology

Mismatches and agreements between the organisational culture of NBP and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology are identified and discussed, resulting in the view that the implementation of the CSF methodology in NBP requires careful adaptation so that there is no conflict between the organisational culture of NBP and the culture that the CSF methodology accommodates.

This research has made an important and original contribution to the fields of organisational culture and SISP methodologies. An initial conceptual framework has been developed for the use in the process of describing systematically the perceived organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology. Using this framework, it has been shown that it is possible to explore mismatches and agreements between two cultures. This provides some evidence of the usefulness of the initial conceptual framework.

It is expected that the set of SISP methodology factors based on the vocabulary used by several authors (for example, Bullen and Rockart, 1981; Boynton and Zmud, 1984; Martin and Leben, 1989; Edwards et al., 1991; and Remenyi, 1991) in narrating a SISP methodology (CSF) used for intermediate representation of the culture accommodated by the SISP methodology (CSF), can be applied to any other SISP methodology, in order to break it down into elements, which can then be related to the factors found to influence organisational culture via the initial conceptual framework. Likewise, it is expected that the initial conceptual framework may be used as a basis of assessing any organisational culture and any SISP methodology. However, there is a need to test the framework and the set of SISP methodology factors on other organisations and SISP methodologies, so that concrete evidence of its wider usefulness can be ascertained.

1.5 Significance of the Research

The significance of this research is clear from the following reasons.

1. The continued strong interest in SISP (Earl, 1993; Earl, 1996A; Doherty et al., 1999; James, 1999) and in organisational culture (Guest, 1992; Brown, 1998) has shown the significance of this research. However, the concept of the culture accommodated by the SISP methodologies has not previously been investigated.
2. The cultural alignment of the SISP methodology or methodologies and organisational culture will increase the success rate of adaptation and

implementation of the methodology or methodologies in the organisation for the planning and the development of effective IS.

3. An initial conceptual framework provides a systematic description of organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology. Current approaches do not do this.
4. It appears to be the first in-depth research regarding Pakistani organisational culture. Its conclusions will enhance the awareness of organisational culture in relation to the importance and viability of SISP methodologies, particularly the CSF methodology.
5. This research comes at a time when the world is starting the 21st century, and business organisations face tremendous competition due to the advancement in IT/IS (Ho, 1995). This research will provide guidance for the successful adaptation of a SISP methodology or methodologies for planning of effective IS to encounter the competition.

1.6 Scope of the Research

The scope of the research was limited to the development of an initial conceptual framework, to explore mismatches and agreements between an organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology, and the alteration of the SISP methodology and/or the organisational culture, to ensure cultural alignment between the two. This research has investigated the organisational culture of a case organisation and the culture accommodated by a case SISP methodology to illustrate the potential usefulness of the initial conceptual framework and the research approach undertaken for this purpose. The initial conceptual framework and the approach need to be tested in other organisations and with respect to other SISP methodologies to ensure their wider applicability.

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

The structure of the remainder of this thesis is as follows.

Chapter 2 provides an overview of IS planning and SISP. The importance of information and IS for business is discussed to highlight the importance of planning for the development and implementation of IS. Alignment between IS and business is discussed which shows that IS can either be valuable tools when correctly aligned to business needs or a heavy cost burden when inappropriate. This chapter describes that SISP helps in the planning of effective IS for organisations, and SISP methodologies provide guidelines to successfully undertake the SISP process. A three-layered view of SISP methodology, technique(s) and tool(s) is explained to show the relationships between them. This is followed by an overview of several SISP methodologies. Finally, issues involved in the selection of a SISP methodology are covered.

In Chapter 3, organisational culture and its importance for organisational success are described. This chapter also shows that one of the important activities of management in the organisation is to know one's organisational culture and to change it if necessary for the success of the organisation. The three ways of viewing organisational culture (that is, by *cultural web*, by typological classification and by the important factors that influence organisational cultures) are part of this chapter. A critical appraisal of the existing typologies and factors that influence organisational culture are also given in this chapter.

Chapters 2 and 3 provide the literature review around the research topic. Chapter 4 provides a summary of the literature review and establishes the link between the literature and this research. It shows a relationships between organisational culture, business strategy and IS. Further, it argues the requirements for culturally sensitive SISP methodologies and proposes an initial conceptual framework. A set of SISP methodology factors is also proposed for the intermediate representation of the culture accommodated by SISP methodologies. An introduction to and reasons for selection of, a case organisation (NBP) and a case SISP methodology (CSF) also form part of this chapter.

An overview of the research approach for data collection and analysis of organisational culture is presented in Chapter 5. Quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection and analysis for organisational culture are discussed. It argues that a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods strengthens the validity of the data and results regarding organisational culture. An overview of Grounded Theory for the analysis of qualitative data is provided in this chapter. The aspects and stages of grounded theory are described in detail. This chapter also identifies some of the problems associated with grounded theory.

Chapter 6 presents the quantitative analysis and interpretation of the data (questionnaire-based survey) collected from NBP in order to describe organisational culture as perceived by its employees. The questionnaire data are analysed using various statistical techniques such as odds ratio and Fisher's exact test. Mean score is also calculated to support the outcome of the analysis via odds ratio and Fisher's exact test.

A qualitative analysis of data (collected via interviews and observation) was performed to complement and cross validate the quantitative analysis. This was done using grounded theory coding, and is covered in Chapter 7. The results of the coding procedures are discussed using examples taken from the research. This chapter offers a grounded theory analysis in the domain of organisational culture of NBP.

Chapter 8 focuses on the culture that the CSF methodology accommodates. The set of SISP methodology factors is used to analyse the CSF methodology, breaking it down into elements which are then related to the factors found to influence organisational culture via the initial conceptual framework. Mismatches and agreements between the organisational culture of NBP and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology are highlighted and considered. Recommendations for the alterations in CSF methodology and/or NBP's organisational culture to ensure cultural alignment between them are also part of this chapter.

Chapter 9 provides a summary of the research, justifies and reviews the suitability of the research process adopted, and discusses the research achievements, and the limitations of the research. It identifies several important issues for further research.

An overview of the thesis structure is given in Figure 1.3. It consists of 5 stages. It starts with introduction chapter and the two literature review chapters, which are shown in stage “A”. This provides a foundation upon which this research is built. The chapters on research justification and approach are shown in stage “B”. The data analysis chapters; covering the quantitative and qualitative analyses performed are shown in stage “C”. The analysis of the CSF methodology, and recommendations for cultural alignment of CSF methodology and the organisational culture of NBP are shown in stage “D”. The final stage “E” in the figure, is concerned with summarising and concluding the research.

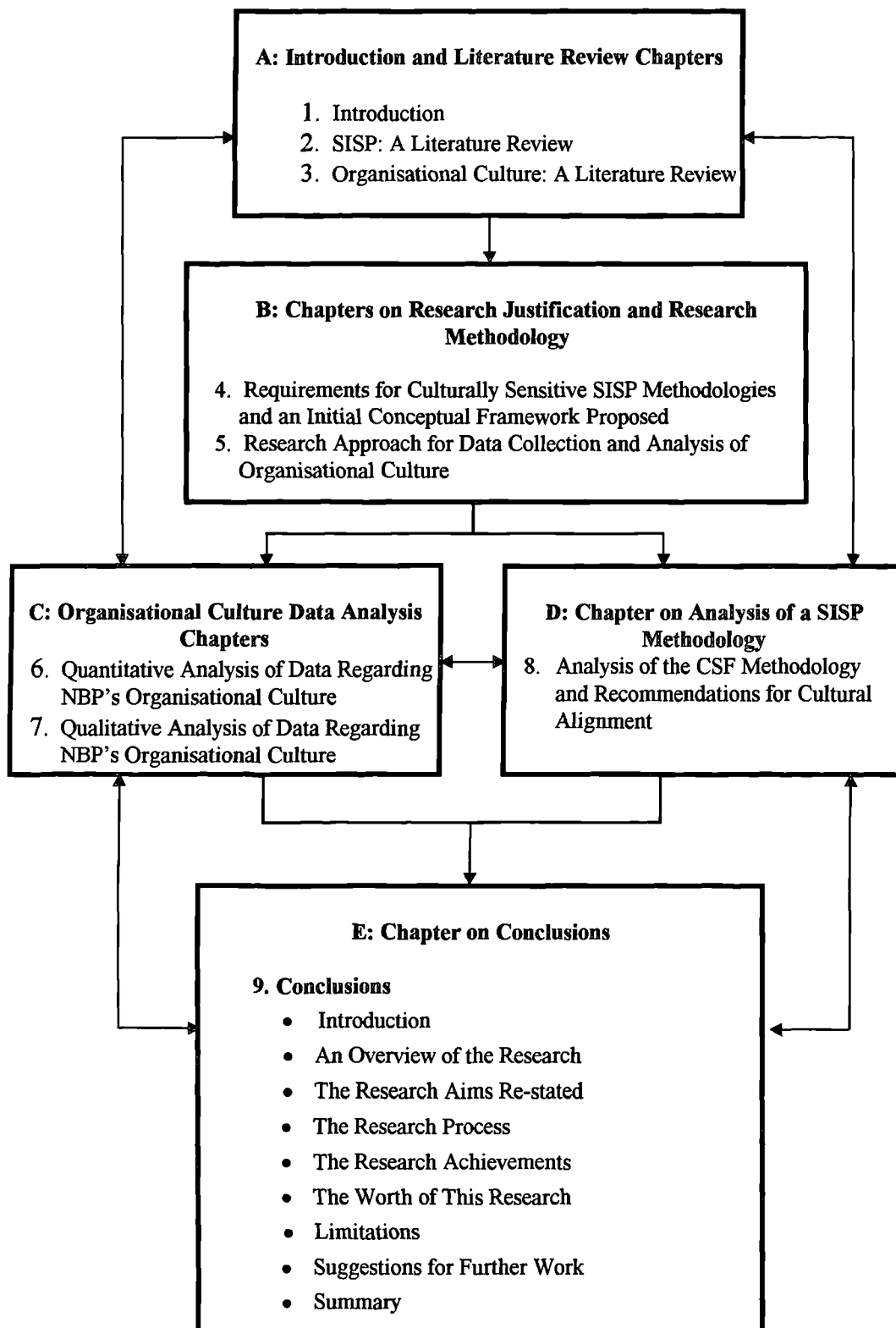


Figure 1.3 Thesis structure

1.8 Summary

This chapter has laid the foundations for this thesis. It has introduced the research topic by summarising the background to this research and the aims of the research, and providing an overview of the research approach used, the results obtained, the significance of the research, and the scope and structure of the thesis. The next chapter provides part of the literature review for this research which covers Strategic Information Systems Planning (SISP).

Chapter Two

STRATEGIC INFORMATION SYSTEMS PLANNING (SISP): *A LITERATURE REVIEW*

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of Strategic Information Systems Planning (SISP). The terms “information”, “IS” and “SISP” are defined in relevant sections so that readers can be united in their views of these terms.

The structure of this chapter is as follows. Section 2.2 discusses the importance of information and IS for business. Alignment between IS and business is also part of this section. Section 2.3 focuses on SISP. Five approaches to SISP are also discussed in this section. The relationships between SISP methodology, SISP technique(s) and SISP tool(s) are described in Section 2.4. Several SISP methodologies and techniques are also described in this section. The issues involved in selecting a SISP methodology are discussed in Section 2.5. Finally, a brief summary of the entire chapter and some concluding remarks are given in Section 2.6.

2.2 The Importance of Information and IS for Business

2.2.1 Definition of Information and its Importance for Business

Several definitions of information have been provided by researchers (for example, Avison and Fitzgerald, 1988; Burch and Grudnitski, 1989; Cashmore and Lyall, 1991; Stair, 1992; Alter, 1992; Lucey, 1995; Curtis, 1995; Fidler and Rogerson, 1996; Introna, 1997; Ritchie et al., 1998). In this thesis, information is defined as “facts and figures presented in a form that are meaningful to a recipient”. Information is always directly useful in decision

making, whereas data is defined as facts and figures that may or may not be useful in decision making without further processing.

Information, whether true or false, can have a major impact on events. Cashmore and Lyall (1991 p.3) state that “in 1988 a report went on the news lines that another nuclear disaster had taken place in the USSR similar to that of Chernobyl. Instantly the world’s stock markets reacted and the gold price moved considerably. It was discovered a day later that the report was not true. Similarly, rumours such as the death of the President of the USA have had a major impact on the stock markets for a few hours until they have been proved to be false.” If an individual organisation has information to which others are not privy, or it receives information in advance of others, that information may be used to its advantage. In the above examples, the information could have been used to make money by determining which way the stock market would move and acting accordingly.

The examples given above highlight information as a powerful and as valuable an asset as other assets such as land and buildings, staff, money, materials and machines (McKeown and Leitch, 1993; Macdonald, 1998). Indeed, Itami (1989), Remenyi (1991), Ward and Griffiths. (1996), Jonathan (1998), and James (1999) consider information to be more important than other assets; it must be actively sought, guarded and preserved. Organisations that do not take advantage of the opportunities afforded by the information available may not be able to compete effectively.

2.2.2 The Importance of IS for Business

Given that information is a valuable asset for organisations, then it follows that IS are also valuable assets. IS are combinations of people and possibly, information technologies organised to receive information to accomplish goals in an organisation. The term “IS” refers to both computer-based and non-computer-based IS.

IS now touches every business activity of a product or service industry, from initiation, design, and production, to marketing, distribution and support (Cash et al., 1988; Zwass,

1998). The remarkable improvement of the market positions of some users via the effective use of IS has set a precedent for others to follow (Wysocki and Young, 1990; Remenyi, 1991; Neumann, 1994; Ward and Griffiths, 1996). For example, American Airlines provided travel agents with terminals, which enabled access to multiple airline timetables and reservation systems. By doing this, the company substantially increased its market share, making it easier for the agent to book seats on its flights rather than on its competitor's flights. Furthermore, the company increased the non-flight revenue by charging a small fee for reservations on other company's carriers made through its computer. American Hospital Supplies, a retailer of general medical supplies, gave their customers terminals by which orders could be entered. Later, they allowed suppliers access to the database and thus directly connected demand to supply. There were several advantages to this arrangement for all parties, one of which was that these electronic connections reduced the delay between placing an order and receiving the goods (Remenyi, 1991). Thomson's Holidays was the first tour operator to offer on-screen booking to high street agents via its on-line viewdata system, which has become known as the most efficient in the business. McKesson Corporation provided pharmacists and druggists with hand-held data entry terminals to record replacement stock details. The information is then down-loaded over telephone lines direct to McKesson's computers. McKesson fills any orders overnight and delivers them on the next day. Because of its short and reliable lead times, buyers began to rely exclusively on McKesson.

However, not all IS are as effective as mentioned above. A large number of IS can be classified as either complete or partial failures because they are either excessively over budget, or many months behind schedule, or of poor quality, or failing to adequately satisfy user's requirements (Doherty and King, 1997; Doherty et al., 2000). Further, Doherty and King (1996) have found that 60% of senior IS professionals perceive that social issues are of more importance than technical issues in determining the successful outcome of IS development. Fisher (1999) further says that the system may meet the functional and design requirements but it may not meet user expectations and therefore fails. In fact, there is a widespread recognition by IS professionals that social and

behavioural factors are more important aspects of IS failures than the technical (Sauer, 1993; Roepke et al., 2000). One of the causes of IS failure is considered by many researchers (for example, Markus and Pfeffer, 1983; Hirschheim and Bolland, 1990; Sauer, 1993; Walsham, 1993; Doherty and King, 1994; Bussen and Myers 1997; Doherty and King, 1997; Doherty et al., 2000) to be the lack of consideration given to the social dimension of IS. For example, IS, which are not properly examined and justified, may result in failure such as the IS developed for the London Stock Exchange (Liebenau and Smithson, 1993) and the London Ambulance Service (London Ambulance Service, 1993; Doherty and King, 1994).

Fidler and Rogerson (1996) state that vital (substantially human) factors were not properly evaluated and justified in these cases. Specifically, it is stated in the report of the inquiry into the London Ambulance Service (1993) “that neither the computer aided dispatch system itself, nor its users, were ready for full implementation on 26 October 1992.” This is further elaborated by Doherty and King (1994) - “the computer aided dispatch system was implemented against a background of poor industrial relations and mistrust by staff: the management of the London Ambulance Service had hoped to make highly ambitious changes to the working practice of staff without adequate consultation and consequently the majority of users failed to accept ‘ownership’ of the system.”

However, in January 1996, the London Ambulance Service introduced call taking on-screen as a full computer aided despatch system and an automatic gazetteer which identifies the location of a call with a map reference. This has replaced the manual system which had been reinstated after the 1992 system failure. Valuable time is saved here as locations do not need to be looked up in an A-Z map of London. The computer aided dispatch system is still under trial and it will be fully implemented once the trial has been successfully completed (London Ambulance Service, 2000).

2.2.3 Alignment of IS and Business

As IS development moved beyond merely providing operational support for the existing activities of the organisation, to supporting strategically both the business processes and business performance, so organisational structures and styles had to move in concert. Thus there had to be an appropriate alignment between the organisation and its IS. As Robson (1994) has stated, IS can either be valuable tools when correctly aligned to business needs or a heavy cost burden when inappropriate.

The task of aligning IS to business needs, can best be achieved through the development of an integrated IS strategy (Avgerou and Cornford, 1993). Successful IS planning and implementation needs close integration of the IS strategy with business strategy. If there is no co-ordination between business planning and IS planning then it would be very difficult for the IS function to adequately support business objective and strategies or to contribute to the achievement of competitive advantage. The quality of IS planning is dependent on the integration of business planning with IS planning (Teo and King, 1999). Teo and King (1999) further state that the integration between business planning and IS planning helps in increasing IS contributions to organisational performance. The poorer alignment the less successful the organisation (Baets, 1992). Ward and Griffiths (1996) argue for the need of integration between business and IS planning so that the resources of the business can be allocated in a coherent manner to those plans that collectively will deliver benefits to the business. This view of alignment of IS strategy with business strategy is also supported by Hackney and Little (1999) on the grounds that technology is not the only ingredient of success; techniques, options and approaches to IS planning linked to business strategy are also needed. Alignment between IS and business is essential (Earl, 1996C; Lederer and Salmela, 1996; Lau et al., 1999; Teo and King, 1999). The benefits of integration between business planning and IS planning can be better achieved by facilitating activities, such as, IS managers' involvement in business strategy planning, management's understanding about IS strategy, users' participation in IS planning and top management commitment to IS (Choe et al., 1998). Roepke et al. (2000) argue that the

key to success of IS lie in their ability to be adaptive, responsive and aligned to business needs.

Earl (1996B, p.486) states that IS strategy should be demand-led and business-driven. He provides a framework by the name of “Organisational Fit Framework (OFF)” for the integration of IS and the organisation. This framework consists of four components, these are, Organisational Strategy, Information Management (IM) Strategy, Information Technology (IT) Strategy, and IS Strategy. It is summarised in Figure 2.1 and described below.

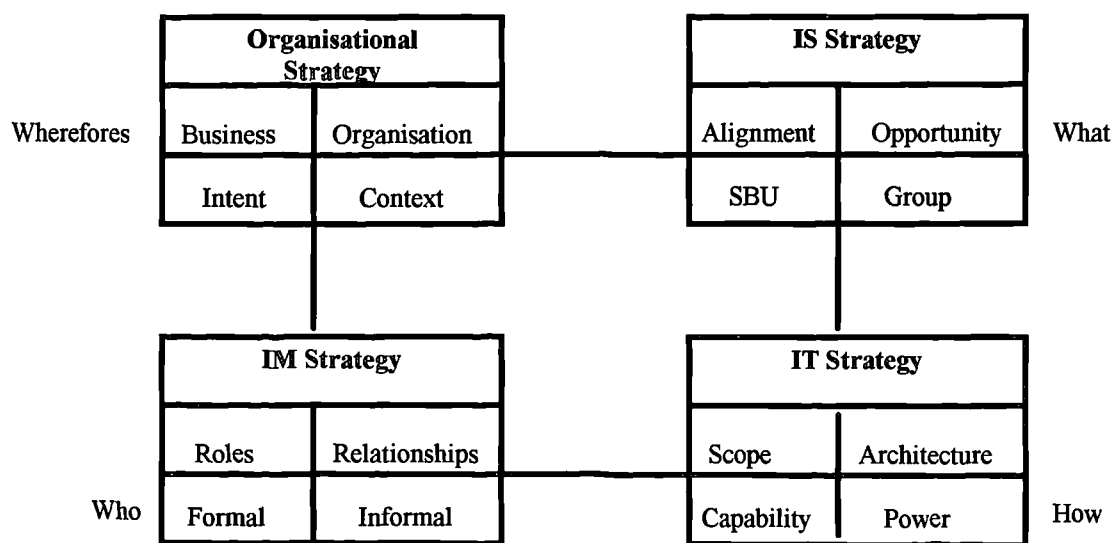


Figure 2.1 The organisational fit framework (OFF)

Source: Adopted from Earl (1996)

• Organisational Strategy

This comprises both the business strategy and organisational choices. It can be thought of as the “wherefores” question (Earl, 1996B). IS strategy and IT strategy should be linked with Business strategy and organisational choices. The business strategy is more concerned with competitive positioning, product-market choices and managing the value chain (see Subsection 2.4.3 for the detail of value chain). The organisational choices are concerned with organisational structure, the management control system, and the formal procedures and policies by which the organisation is to be managed.

- **IM Strategy**

This IM strategy concerned with the way IT to be managed with the “who”, in that it spells out responsibilities, relationships, and roles and even in its more control-oriented components is concerned with guiding personal or functional actions and assessing subsequent performance (Earl, 1996B). Relationships are concerned with the need that users and IS specialists should work together in the organisation. Roles are concerned with who has what responsibility and authority for the information resource both inside and outside the organisation.

- **IT Strategy**

This IT strategy concerned with the technology and infrastructure-building set, or the “how” question (Earl, 1996B) within which technologies in the market-place are likely to offer business threats and opportunities. The infrastructure is concerned with the elements of computing, communications, data and applications, and comprise parameters; policies and plans.

- **IS Strategy**

This IS strategy concerned with the organisation’s required IS or applications set, or the “what” question (Earl, 1996B). It comprises the components of alignment and opportunity. IS strategic planning is concerned with identifying the applications required to support business strategy (alignment) and innovative use of IS to enable business to be done differently (opportunity).

The OFF proposes not only that a complete information strategy has to address the four domains in Figure 2.1, but also that they are inter-related. This framework proposes a consistent set of relationships, which are continually changing and thus should be an ongoing process (Earl, 1996B).

The OFF provides a guideline for the integration of IS with the organisation via alignment between organisation strategy, IM strategy, IT strategy and IS strategy. Indeed, the latter three strategies are components of SISP (see Section 2.3).

Markus and Pfeffer (1983), and Sauer (1993) state that unless IS design and implementation efforts address the structural features of organisations, including power distributions and cultures, they will not be successful. It is therefore vital that IS development teams take into consideration the organisational culture at the time of developing and implementing IS, if they wish to significantly lower the risk of IS incompatibility and/or failure (Lee and Gough, 1993). Moreover, Harris (1999, p.124) advocates that a planning effort is culturally dependent and that management initiating planning should be conversant with the intricacies of organisational culture. IS planning forms the subject of Section 2.3.

2.3 Planning for IS: SISP

IS planning is a major business activity. Management must ensure consistency of IS developments with the organisation's goals. An IS planning process helps an organisation to choose the most appropriate IS and successfully manage their implementation (Salmela et al., 2000). In addition, Strategic Information Systems Planning (SISP) can help organisations use IS in innovative ways, for example, by building barriers against new entrants, changing the basis of competition, generating new products, building in switching costs or changing the balance of power in supplier relationships (McFarlan, 1984; Ward and Griffiths, 1996; James, 1999).

The term "SISP" is defined variously by several authors, for example:

- Remenyi (1991, p.13) states "SISP is the process of establishing a programme for the implementation and use of IS in such a way that it will optimise the effectiveness of the firm's information resources and use them to support the objectives of the whole enterprise as much as possible".

- O'Connor (1993, p.71) states "SISP is the process of ensuring alignment between business plans and objectives and IS plans and objectives and/or the process of identifying IS which will provide the organisation with a competitive edge".
- Fidler and Rogerson (1996, p.219) state "SISP is the means of identifying application systems which support and enhance organisational strategy and provides the framework for the effective implementation of these systems".
- Lederer and Salmela (1996, p.238), and Lederer and Sethi (1996, p.37) reproduce the definition given by Lederer and Sethi (1988, p.446) that "SISP is the process of identifying a portfolio of computer-based applications that will assist an organisation in executing its business plans and realising its business goals" .
- Ward and Griffiths (1996, p.96) state "SISP is taken to mean planning for the effective long-term management and optimal impact of information - in all its forms - IS and IT incorporating manual and computer systems, computer technology and telecommunications. It also includes organisational aspects of the management of IS/IT throughout the business".
- Doherty et al. (1999, p.265) state "SISP is the process of identifying a portfolio of computer-based applications to be implemented, which is both highly aligned with corporate strategy and has the ability to create an advantage over competitors".
- Watson et al. (2000, p.175) state "the objectives for SISP have most commonly featured from the identification of suitable IS/IT for the organisation, investment appraisal and implementation planning with the overall aim of their alignment with the business strategy (Earl, 1989; Baets, 1992; Burn, 1993; Dutta & Doz, 1995; Sillince & Frost, 1995). In addition, a few textbooks (Fidler and Rogerson, 1996; Ward and Griffiths, 1996; Robson, 1997) and many other researchers (Elliot & Melhuish, 1995; Lederer & Salmela, 1996) have interpreted SISP as an exercise in which a series of logical steps are undertaken resulting which define IS/IT requirements and identify a long-term strategy."

The definitions by Remenyi (1991), and Lederer and Salmela (1996) provide a somewhat narrow concept of SISP. They consider SISP to be primarily concerned with the

identification of a portfolio of IS applications and the necessary technology to support both business plans and business objectives/goals. Whereas, for O'Connor (1993), and Doherty, et al. (1999) the emphasis is on competitive advantage which is considered applicable only in profit-making organisations. However, the definitions by others, provide a broad view of SISP, and most commonly include the following features:

- A series of logical steps.
- Identification of suitable IS/IT.
- Investment appraisal and implementation planning
- Alignment of IS strategy with the business strategy
- To identify a long-term strategy.
- New or better products/services.

Some definitions, especially that given by Fidler and Rogerson (1996), encompass both profit-making and non-profit-making organisations. The definition by Fidler and Rogerson recognises the multivarious nature of the SISP process within an organisation. It recognises the importance of alignment between IS and business strategy in order to realise corporate objectives irrespective of the type of organisation (profit-making or non-profit-making). It further recognises the need to develop a strategy that embraces all IS within the organisation. This is particularly important where there is a strong interdependence between IS. The definition also emphasises the need to promote strategic thinking within an organisation. This view is also supported by Watson et al. (2000) on the grounds that SISP requires a radical re-conceptualisation of IS so that IS extend beyond merely providing support applications to become an integral part of strategic organisational cultures. They further state that SISP should take into account the dynamic nature of organisations and that there is a need for strategies to be adaptive. This idea of dynamic competitive strategy is also argued by Shay and Rothaermel (1999) on the grounds that comparative analysis of the strategic advantages is sufficient for present-time analysis, but not sufficient for projecting the future success of organisations. They provide a framework (The Multi-perspective and Dynamic Competitive Strategy Model) for dynamic strategy for a rapidly and continuously changing competitive environment. Shay and Rothaermel

(1999) themselves acknowledge that this framework is not applicable to organisations in which there is not intense competition. For example, Microsoft's monopolistic position of its operating software is an exception to this framework (Shay and Rothaermel, 1999). Moreover, this framework provides analysis for competitive advantage which is considered applicable only in profit-making organisations. Whereas, SISP is applicable for both profit-making and non-profit-making organisations (see Fidler and Rogerson, 1996). Hence, in this thesis, the definition given by Fidler and Rogerson (1996) and the views of Watson et al. (2000) are adopted because they emphasise the importance of alignment between IS and business strategy irrespective of the type of organisation (profit-making or non-profit-making) and the need for the dynamic approach to SISP respectively.

According to Remenyi (1991), SISP can make a significant impact not only on IS practices, resources and management, but also on the overall performance of the organisation. On the other hand, others have commented on the fact that the failure to carry out SISP can result in lost opportunities, duplicate effort, incompatible systems and wasted resources (for example, Lederer and Sethi, 1988; Raghunathn and King, 1988; and Sethi and Lederer, 1997).

The strategic issues requires more than just flexibility within the organisation (Moncrieff, 1999). To develop a strategic IS plan, an organisation must accomplish a set of related tasks. It must form an IS planning project team, involving both organisational and IS management personnel, with a team leader. The team then carries out a study during which it identifies new applications, specific databases, networks of hardware and software, resource requirements, priorities, and a migration plan. SISP can be seen in terms of an input-process-output activity with appropriate feedback loops (see Figure 2.2).

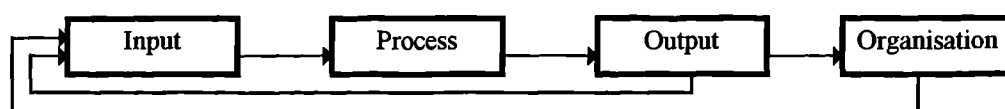


Figure 2.2 SISP: An input-process-output framework
Source: Adopted from Lederer and Gardiner (1992)

Input includes the organisation's current business plans, IS, structure, and technology trends. Process is the strategic IS planning that uses the inputs to create the output which is the strategic IS plan of proposed applications. The output of a SISP depends on its objectives and scope, generally it includes: an action programme regarding contribution by IS personnel, various reports (such as, IS, information architecture and IS opportunities), requirements for the various IS applications, a list of hardware and software, and a timetable for its acquisition or development, an enthusiastic and committed senior management, motivation of staff to embrace IS, and development of business indicators (such as, business objectives, corporate strategy, critical success factors, present business needs and the anticipated growth over the next 5 years, measures for monitoring the performance of new IS, and timetable showing resources required and expenditures on required IS).

Moreover, SISP is an ongoing process (Doherty et al., 1999; Watson et al., 2000). The success of previous plans needs to be assessed to inform future planning for further SISP activities. This is shown as feedback loops for the creation of new strategic IS plans. Top management commitment to (and approval of) plan implementation, and the full involvement of management and IS personnel, can reduce the risks of SISP failure which are associated both with the planning process itself and implementation of the plans (O'Connor, 1993). SISP must emerge as a result of business needs, the process should be sensitive to explore the cultural issues and it should explicitly address these issues (Watson et al., 2000).

The time required to undertake a SISP activity varies between organisations. In many circumstances, a thoroughly developed plan takes three to six months. However, it is doubtful whether a SISP activity with an extended time scale (beyond six months) is worth the cost and time involved. As Remenyi (1991, p.208) says, a SISP should not be allowed to take more than six months because conditions might change which will therefore possibly effect the relevance of the findings/recommendations for IS and/or the organisation. The strategic IS plan may be for a short period, that is, covering twelve to

eighteen months, or a long period, that is, possibly covering three to five years. However, Shay and Rothaermel (1999) warn that there is a need to change IS plan according to rapidly changing environment. Hence, a long term plan may not be effective.

To successfully undertake and complete a SISP, it is important to use the activities supported by techniques and methodologies (Doll, 1985; Remenyi, 1991; Rogerson and Fidler, 1994; Robson, 1997; Cerpa and Verner, 1998). Although reported successful IS implementation were not always due to formalised and comprehensive planning, the effective application of SISP methodologies and techniques enables an organisation to succeed more by judgment than luck (Remenyi, 1991; Doherty et al., 1999).

However, Earl (1996C) states that SISP methodologies are too complex or time-consuming. Hackney and Little (1999), and Shay and Rothaermel (1999) observe that the strategy process generally unpredictable and changing, hence existing framework (methodologies) are not robust enough to explain or predict strategies for business. Watson et al. (2000) argue for dynamic approaches to SISP which incorporate element of the evolutionary (making a move from doing things right to doing the right things), processual (interactions between cultural and political issues), and systemic (environment within which the organisation exists) on the grounds that IS strategy is often complex and unpredictable, and present approaches (such as, Method/1, Information Engineering) are too simplistic and rigid to meet the SISP needs of changing organisations. They further argue that there is a need to consider flexible and dynamic approaches to avoid the partially invalid and possibly inaccurate results of SISP but they have not provided any guidelines for the use of such approaches. Their idea (flexible and dynamic approaches to SISP) seems to be theoretically sound but requires empirical validation leading to guidelines for practical usability. Hence, till the development of guidelines for the use of such dynamic approaches, organisations have to rely on the existing available methodologies which are already tested and applied by several organisations.

Several available SISP methodologies and techniques are described in Section 2.4. The process of planning and the implementation of plans are considered as of equal importance by Earl to the adoption of a SISP methodology and associated techniques (Earl, 1993; Earl, 1996A). His so-called “SISP approaches” are the subject of the following subsection.

2.3.1 SISP Approaches

Based on a review of SISP in twenty seven companies, Earl (1993), Earl (1996A) and Earl (1996C), identified five approaches to SISP that were being adopted. An approach may be considered as a mix of procedures, techniques and interactions between users and IS people, and analyses. Hence, the processes of IS planning and implementation are equally important to the adoption of techniques. The process of planning is concerned with management support and participation, users’ involvement, awareness and education. Implementation involves execution of plans. Each approach to SISP is briefly described in turn below.

- **The Business-Led Approach**

This approach reflects the view that the business direction or plans are the only basis upon which IS plans can be built and therefore business planning should always drive SISP. Business plans or strategies are therefore analysed to identify where IS are required.

- **The Method-Driven Approach**

This approach depends entirely on the use of a formal technique or method. A search for the best method, or at least one better than the last method adopted, is frequently undertaken. This approach is usually initiated by IS people, and because of this it may fail to achieve the support and involvement of other people in the organisation

- **The Administrative Approach**

This approach sees IS planning as part of routine resource planning. This approach is parallel to, or could form part of, the normal routine financial planning of the firm. Ideas for the radical change of a business do not usually emerge via this SISP approach.

- **The Technological Approach**

This approach is based on the fact that an IS-oriented model of the business is a result of SISP and, therefore, that analytical modeling methods are appropriate. The emphasis is on deriving detailed IS architectures (covering data, computing, communications and applications issues) through rigorous analysis of business activities and requirements.

- **The Organisational Approach**

This approach is based on IS decisions made through continuous integration between both the IS and management personnel. The IS personnel work in close partnership with management. This approach uses methods as required to fit a particular purpose. However, the emphasis is on the process, especially management understanding and involvement. This approach is based on the following characteristics; collective learning and involvement, teams, task forces, and workshops (which are used to tackle problems or pursue initiatives). SISP is part of normal business planning, and continuous and incremental enhancement of existing IS applications.

There is a difference between organisational approach, organisational culture and organisational context. The organisational approach is based on IS decisions being made through the continuous integration between the IS function and the organisation (Earl, 1993; Earl, 1996A). It is a true partnership between the IS and the organisation. Whereas, organisational culture, as defined in Section 3.2, comprises the behaviour, attitudes and beliefs of the employees, which leads them to think and act in a certain way. Hence, there may or may not be an integration between IS and the organisation in a particular organisational culture. On the other hand, organisational context refers to organisational structure (including strengths and weaknesses of the organisation), organisational culture, external situation (threats and opportunities in the environment) and type of business. Hence organisational context is considered as a combination of the political and social elements in an organisation (Hanckney and Little, 1999). It should be noted that this research is restricted to the consideration of only organisational culture.

According to Earl (1993), Earl (1996A) and Earl (1996C), the above five approaches are different in the underpinning assumptions, the emphasis of the approach and the major influence(s) over the outcome. He describes the organisational approach as most effective for SISP. Figure 2.3 characterises these approaches based on these three differences. Also, slogans are given to capture the essence of each approach. Later, a research project was initiated by Doherty et al. (1999) to gain further insight into the importance and relevance of the SISP approaches described by Earl (1993) and Earl (1996A). Doherty et al. (1999) confirm that out of the 5 approaches described by Earl (1993) and Earl (1996A) “organisational approach” is the most effective and the “administrative approach” is the least effective. The strengths and weaknesses of each approach are summarised in Figure 2.4.

Characteristics /Approaches	Underpinning Assumption	Emphasis of Approach	Major Influence over Outcome	Slogan
Business-Led	Business plans and needs should drive IS plans	Business leads IS and not vice-versa	IS planners	Business drives IS
Method-Driven	IS strategies will be enhanced by the use of a formal SISP method	Selection of the best method	Practitioners of the method	Strategy needs method
Administrative	SISP should follow and conform with the firm's management planning and control procedures	Identification and allocation of IS resources to meet agreed needs	Resources planning and steering committee	Follow the rules
Technological	SISP is an exercise in business and information modeling	Production of models and blueprints	Modeling method employed	IS needs blueprints
Organisational	SISP is a continuous decision-making activity shared by the business and IS	Organisation learning about business problems and opportunities and the IT contribution	Permanent and ad hoc teams of key managers incl. IS	Themes with teams

Figure 2.3 An overview of SISP approaches
Source: Adopted from Earl (1993)

Approaches	Strengths	Weaknesses
Business-Led	Simple, Business first, Raises IS status	Ad hoc method, Lacks management commitment, Depends on quality of business strategy
Method-Driven	Provides a methodology, Plugs strategy gaps, Raises strategy profile	Little user involvement, Too influenced by method, Implementation unlikely
Administrative	System viability, System synergies, Encourages user input	Non-strategic, Bureaucratic, Resource constrained
Technological	Rigor, Focus on infrastructure, Favours integrated tools	Lacks management support, Only partial implementation, Complexity of use
Organisational	Becomes normal, Emphasis on implementation, Promotes IS-user partnership	No generation of new themes, Soft methodology, Architecture becomes difficult

Figure 2.4 Strengths and weaknesses of SISP approaches
Source: Adopted from Earl (1993)

2.4 SISP Methodologies and Techniques

The use of various terms, such as “Method” or “Methodology”, and “Techniques” are confusing in the literature. For this research, a three layered view of a SISP methodology is adopted, as shown in Figure 2.5, to illustrate the relationship between SISP methodology, technique(s) and tool(s). A SISP methodology can be considered a systemic procedure or set of techniques which supports the SISP process. A SISP technique can also be considered a SISP methodology when the set of SISP techniques may have only one member as shown in Figure 2.5. In other words, what is considered a SISP technique and what is considered a SISP methodology depends on the context in which it is used.

Several methodologies and techniques exist for use during SISP. For this research a representative subgroup (to provide an overview of some methodologies) was chosen which includes; Critical Success Factor (CSF), Porter’s Five Forces Model, Value Chain Analysis (VCA), Strategic Option Generator (SOG), The KPMG approach, Method/1 from the Andersen Consulting Group, Business Systems Planning (BSP) from IBM and Customer Resources Life Cycle (CRLC). These methodologies can be classified as one of

two categories: generic methodologies, which are publicly available (for example, CSF and Porter's five forces model) and are being used by some of the consulting firms as a part of their methodologies, and proprietary methodologies, which are not publicly available (for example, methodologies developed by KPMG, and Anderson Consulting). Each of the above mentioned methodologies and techniques is now briefly discussed. These methodologies and techniques are critically evaluated in Section 2.5.

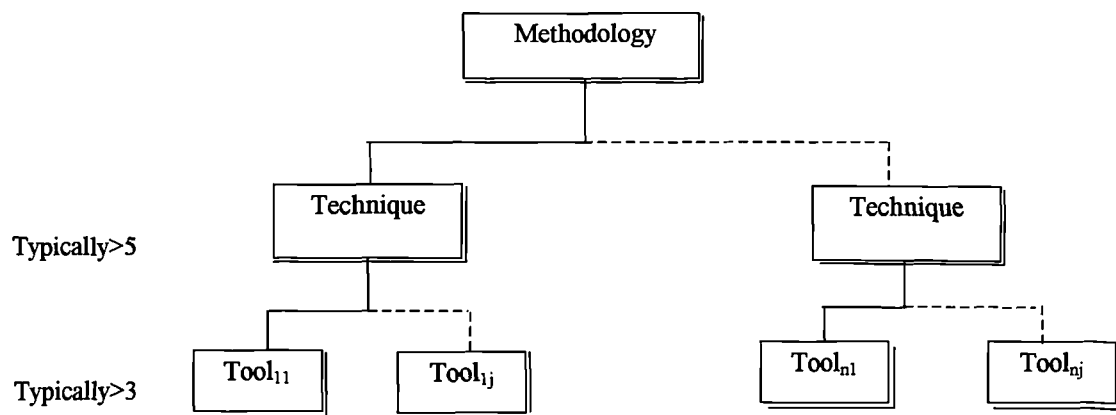


Figure 2.5 Showing relationship between SISP methodology, techniques and tools
 Source: Adopted from Fidler and Rogerson (1996)

2.4.1 Critical Success Factors (CSFs)

The Critical Success Factors (CSFs) technique was originally developed by Rockart (1979) as part of his research conducted at the Center for Information Systems Research, Sloan School of Management, Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT), as a means of understanding the information requirements of senior management in an organisation. It is based on the concept of the "success factor" which was first discussed by Daniel (1961). The CSF technique was later expanded on by Bullen and Rockart (1981) within their work on SISP methodologies.

Critical Success Factors (CSFs) may be defined as the few areas in which an organisation must succeed in order for it to attain satisfactory performance. In other words, CSFs are those areas which, if not properly managed, will mean that the organisation will fail, even if all other areas perform well. The CSF methodology helps organisations to identify organisational information needs, and to subsequently develop an IS Plan (Shank et al.,

1985). To find the CSFs of an organisation, managers from the different levels in the organisational hierarchy must be interviewed. The interview process is similar to any other fact finding interview activity. Following this is a management meeting to discuss and determine the CSFs of the organisation. This meeting provides the opportunity for top management to fully discuss the findings (CSFs) and arrive at a consensus view. The resulting consensus view will be consolidated to form a collective set of CSFs. CSFs may be determined for the organisation as a whole, and for individual departments or functions. (CSFs for parts of the organisation are sometimes referred to as lower level CSFs.) Example CSFs, classified in accordance with the particular organisation scenario used, are shown in Figure 2.6.

It should be noted that there are different approaches to CSF (top-down/bottom-up). For example, Boynton and Zmud (1984, p.87) state “CSF methodology facilitates a structured, top-down analysis or planning process”. Whereas, Martin and Leben (1989, p.200) state “interviews should progress from the lowest-level managers to the highest level”. This top-down or bottom-up approach to CSF is not significant for this research.

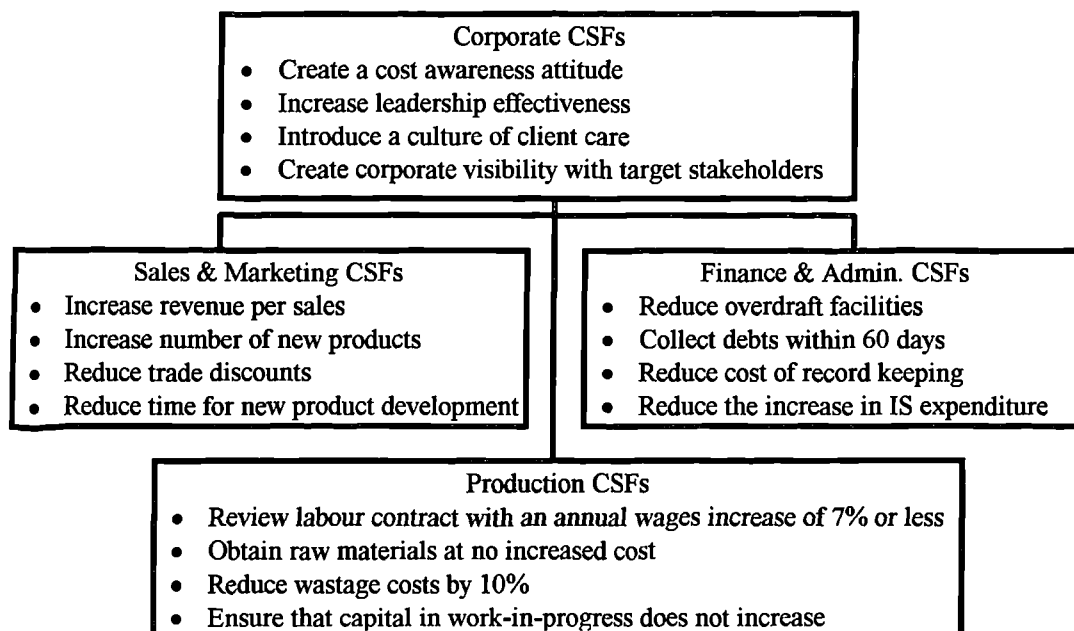


Figure 2.6 CSFs of a particular organisation
 Source: Adopted from Remenyi (1991)

CSFs are derived directly from the goals or objectives of business. For every CSF found, there may be several key information needs that, if identified, will help managers make crucial decisions. For example, to correctly assess a “consumer styling taste” CSF, information must be obtained regarding what consumers are currently purchasing and any possible trends that might influence future tastes. The advantages of this approach are that it is easily understood, flexible, it facilitates timely decisions, and it uses a top-down analysis (Neumann, 1994). For measuring the performance of an organisation to achieve a CSF there needs to be at least one associated Key Performance Indicator (KPI). A KPI is a measure which will inform management how adequately the organisation is performing in its efforts to achieve a CSF.

2.4.2 Five Forces Model

The Five Forces Model was developed by Porter (1985), the five forces being; the power of buyers or customers, the power of suppliers or sellers, the threat of new competitors, the threat of substitute products, and the rivalry among existing competitors within the industry in which the organisation operates. IS can be powerful resources to change the balance of power in and between these forces (Neumann, 1994; Zwass, 1998). Figure 2.7 shows Porter’s model. A description of the potential effect of IS on each force is given below.

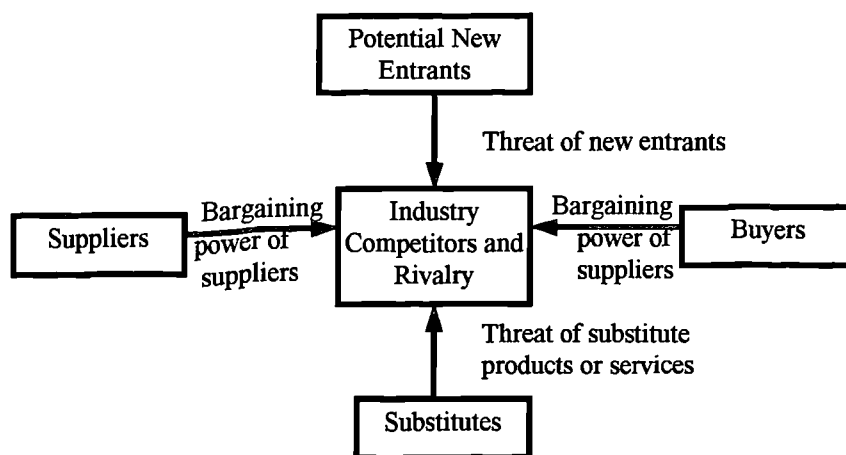


Figure 2.7 Porter’s five forces model
Source: Adopted from Porter (1985)

The threat of new entrants can be prevented by building barriers to their entry into the industry. These barriers include switching costs, economies of scale, high capital requirements, patents and specialist skills, distribution channels and government policy. IS can help create or raise barriers to entry by increasing mandatory investments in hardware and software, facilitating access over databases or locking in customers to existing distribution channels.

The rivalry of industry depends on the degree of concentration of competitors, the diversity of products, the dependency of buyers and the general rate of industry growth. It is critical to understand the strategies of one's rival in detail. An organisation can improve its position through strategic shifts which decrease the effects of rivals on its profitability. For example, in supermarket chains, IS can be used to gain competitive advantage by having an effective stock control system based upon shelf stock levels and point of sale stock recording. This can help to replenish popular items quickly to satisfy demand and to withdraw unpopular items as soon as possible, thus reducing the financial loss of holding unpopular items. Long-term buying habits can also be investigated with the help of the stock control system.

The power of buyers depends on the switching costs to the buyers, the competitive position of the buyer and the buyers' potential to buy out or merge with suppliers. The high bargaining power of buyers drives prices down and the quality of products up. To avoid the buyers' threat an organisation might look for ways to increase buyer switching costs, and to offer differentiated products or services. IS (such as the Internet) can be used to locate new markets for products.

The power of suppliers depends on a differentiated (or unique) product, size of product, volume, concentration relative to buyers, and merging with other customers. With the help of modern global telecommunications, it is possible to reduce the bargaining power of local suppliers by searching for other remote suppliers.

The threat of substitute products may arise from the products and services of other industries. Substitute products can eliminate an industry. For example, the automobile eliminated the horse with buggy, and the computerised composing of books and newspapers eliminated manual composing of books and newspapers. The life cycle of products can be reduced through the use of IS/IT, such as Computer-Aided Design (CAD). IS/IT can also be used to create new information-intensive products (Neumann, 1994).

The Five Forces Model can be used either to categorise information based on which of the five forces it effects, or it can be used to prioritise IS investment based upon the relative importance of each of the five forces.

2.4.3 Value Chain Analysis (VCA)

The concept of Value Chain Analysis (VCA) was also developed by Porter (1985). VCA is based on the view that a business is profitable only if the cost of producing a product is less than the value of the product it creates. The value of a product a company creates is measured by the amount that buyers are willing to pay for it. A company must either perform business activities at a lower cost, or perform them in a way that leads to differentiation and a premium price to gain profits (Porter and Millar, 1985; Zwass, 1998). An example of the use of VCA, and where and how value can be added to a product is given in Figure 2.8. IS can be used to shape both the products and the process of products (including products delivering process) from manufacturing till its availability to customers (Neumann, 1994).

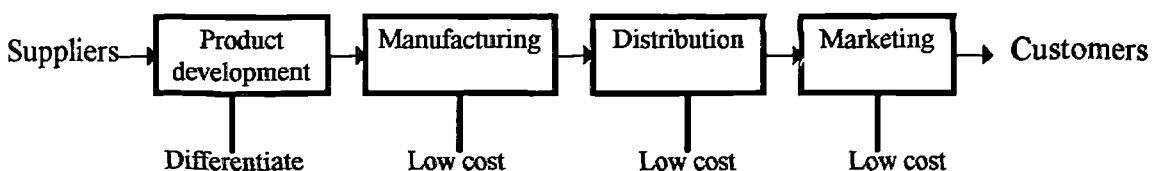


Figure 2.8 Example use of VCA showing how and where value can be added
Source: Adopted from Neumann (1994)

A company's activities fall into nine categories (see Figure 2.9). Support activities comprise the firm's infrastructure, human resource management, technology development and procurement. Primary activities comprise inbound logistics, operations, outbound logistics, marketing and sales, and services. Porter claims that these nine chain activities exist in most organisations.

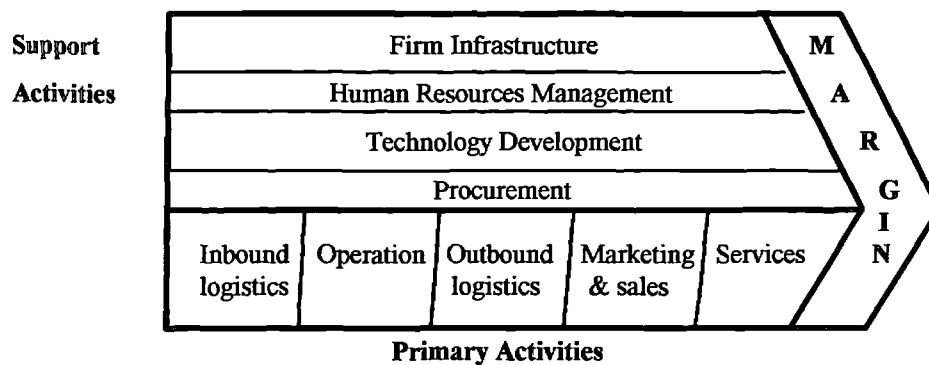


Figure 2.9 The generic value chain
Source: Adopted from Porter (1985)

Support activities provide the infrastructure for primary activities. VCA investigates how IS can add value to all these activities. The support activities are explained in turn below.

- Firm infrastructure - support of entire value chain (such as, general management, legal services, finance and public relations). IS example: decision support tools.
- Human resources management - recruiting, hiring, training and development. IS example: computerised training tools.
- Technology development - improving products or process. IS example: computer aided design (CAD) and computer aided engineering.
- Procurement - purchasing. IS example: online procurement systems.

Primary activities involve the production and delivery of the product or service and after-sale support. These activities are explained in turn below.

- Inbound logistics - expediting raw materials to production. IS example: just-in-time inventory.
- Operations - transforming raw materials into finished products. IS example: flexible manufacturing.
- Outbound logistics - storing and distributing finished products. IS example: automated order processing and dispatch system.
- Marketing and sales - promotion and sales products. IS example: on-line orders from customers.
- Services - after sale services to maintain and enhance sales. IS example: computer scheduling of repair personnel.

According to Porter and Millar (1985) “the value chain concept becomes more important when it is extended to the whole industry in which the organisation operates,” for example, when the linkage between a company and its buyers and suppliers is considered.

2.4.4 Strategic Option Generator (SOG)

The Strategic Option Generator (SOG) methodology was developed by Rackoff et al. (1985) and is explored in great detail by Wiseman (1985). This methodology identifies IS opportunities in relation to customers, suppliers and competitors. These IS opportunities, also known as strategic targets, are first determined. Then several strategic thrusts are identified for each strategic target (Wiseman, 1985). This methodology is effective in generating ideas for SIS applications because of the focus on targets, thrusts, mode and direction of IS (Neumann, 1994). Figure 2.10 shows a model of the SOG.

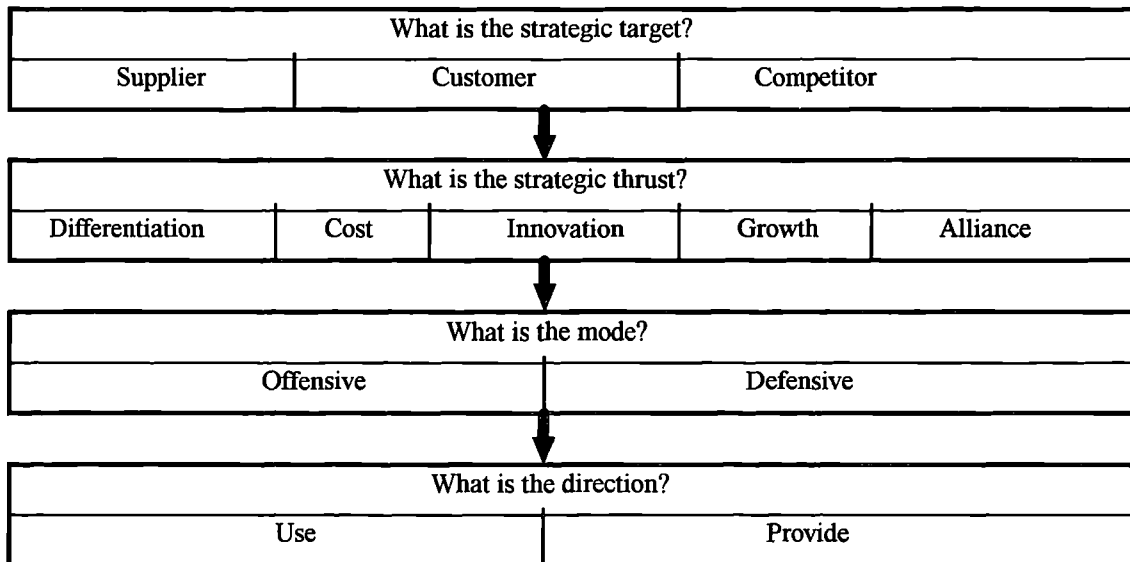


Figure 2.10 Strategic option generator
Source: Adopted from Remenyi (1991)

The strategic thrusts are explained in turn below.

- A differentiation thrust can be achieved by distinguishing products and services from those of competitors.
- A low cost thrust can be achieved by reducing costs or raising costs competitors must pay to match the quality and service you provide.
- An innovation thrust can be achieved by introducing a new product.
- A growth thrust can be achieved by volume or geographic expansion.
- An alliance thrust can be achieved by forming joint ventures with customers, suppliers and competitors.

Having decided the strategic targets and thrusts then it is important to consider two important modes of IS use. IS use may be offensive to gain or increase an edge over competitor(s), or defensive to reduce a competitor's edge or prevent a potential disadvantage. The last stage in the methodology is regarding the direction of IS use. Its use may be by the organisation itself or to make it available to others (such as, customers and/or suppliers of the organisation).

Wiseman (1985) claims that all the organisations that have tried to use the SOG have succeeded in identifying IS opportunities of strategic worth.

Whilst this is an interesting and typical approach that was popular for a time, it appears to be no longer in use. An extensive literature search resulted in no recent reference regarding its practical application. However, it is included here as an indicative SISP approach because it is felt the concepts on which SOG is built are sound and relevant to this research.

2.4.5 The KPMG Approach

This SISP methodology consists of eight interrelated stages as shown in Figure 2.11. Each stage consists of a set of tasks and a pool of standard techniques. If a suitable technique is not available for a specific task, then a new one is created and added to the pool for the subsequent tasks. The eight stages of the KPMG approach are discussed in turn below.

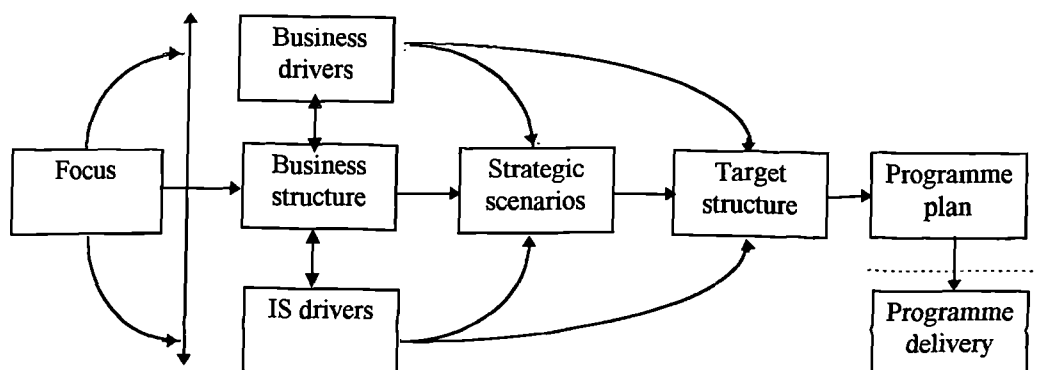


Figure 2.11 The KPMG approach to SISP
Source: Adopted from Fidler and Rogerson (1996)

The first stage of the KPMG approach, focus, is concerned with identifying the key underlying issues and understanding the work to be undertaken. The organisational measures of performance related to finance, customers and business processes should be clearly understood. These measures will be used to assess the developed strategy.

The second stage, business drivers, is concerned with the thorough understanding of the business, its competition, its market, its product or service, any internal tensions, economic and other goals. Porter's Five Forces Model (see Subsection 2.4.2) is typically used to analyse the competitive environment. The result of this stage can be a decision as to whether to build a learning organisation (Senge, 1992; Garvin, 1993; Senge et al., 1994), or to improve market share, or to provide a new service.

The third stage, business structure, is concerned with assessing the opportunities for changes to business processes, and its implication for IS support. This stage requires the development of in-depth knowledge as to how the organisation works and faces the challenges of its environment. The findings of this stage help to identify key processes that need improvement or redesign.

The fourth stage, IS drivers, involves an investigation into the impact of new technology, the use of technology by competitors, the existing IS and technology available in the organisation, and the organisation's ability to implement strategic change. This helps to establish the baseline for planning the implementation of the IS strategy.

The fifth stage, strategic scenarios, focuses on the development of several strategic options on the basis of the outcomes of the "business drivers", "business structure", and "IS drivers" stages. In this stage, a number of future business and IS scenarios are developed. These scenarios will include potential business processes and their effects on customers and suppliers, the definition of organisational roles and responsibilities, and the definition of the required IS portfolio.

The sixth stage, the target structure, focuses on the refinement and expansion of the chosen scenario (selected at the end of the fifth stage), which is described in terms of the categories shown in Figure 2.12.

Business structure	Demand side architecture	Supply side architecture
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Redesigned process • Organisation, roles and responsibilities • Performance measures and targets • Management plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Application structure • IS proposals • Data models • User roles • Education and training 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • IS skills • IS organisation • Technology use • Supply strategy • IS management practices • Standards and methods

Figure 2.12 The three categories of the KPMG approach for expanded description of the chosen scenario
Source: Adopted from Fidler and Rogerson (1996)

The “business structure” category shows how the organisation is to be changed and how it will be measured. The “demand side architecture” category shows the demand for support from those involved in IS implementation. IS resources must be available to satisfy these demands. The “supply side architecture” category shows that the IS resources are available to satisfy the demand side architecture.

The seventh stage, the programme plan, addresses the issues of implementation, programme management and control, any links to other change initiatives in the organisation, management approach towards IS, communication within and outside the organisation, and strategy and plan maintenance. There is a need to consider that there may be different target dates for different elements, and that the business and its environment are continually changing. This programme plan provides direction for individual projects, and promotes strategic thinking and mechanisms which help the organisation to respond to future change.

The eighth stage, programme delivery, is the last stage of the KPMG methodology. The top management monitor the programme via the plan. This stage provides a framework

which helps to make new decisions and modify actions to reflect any changes in the business environment.

2.4.6 METHOD/1 from Andersen Consulting

METHOD/1 from Andersen Consulting involves a top-down approach to IS planning, which is, in Andersen Consulting's view, an ongoing continuous process. This methodology begins by identifying the organisation's business vision and then develops this into business objectives, business strategies and CSFs. The methodology considers where the organisation is, where it wants to go, and how it can get there. Executives are encouraged to assess the organisation's internal efficiency and compare it with that of its competitors. Andersen Consulting uses many techniques including Porter's Five Forces (see Subsection 2.4.2) and VCA (see Subsection 2.4.3) in its methodology.

METHOD/1 addresses IS planning, design, implementation and maintenance. It states nine fully integrated development paths, which can be scaled and adapted to cater for all sizes of organisations and projects; information planning, large client/server development, small client/server development, rapid client/server development, large host-based development, small host-based development, rapid host-based development, packaged systems, and production support systems.

The objectives of information planning are to: define the information needs, identify new opportunities, define IT requirements, define organisational requirements, and to define activities required to implement the information strategy. These objectives of information planning are in line with SISP (Fidler and Rogerson, 1996). The information planning phase consists of 10 sections: the first five are used to formulate IS strategy, taking into account the existing organisational situation, whereas the remaining five are used to refine the new strategy. As can be seen in Figure 2.13, the 10 sections are interrelated. Each of the sections are further broken down into number of work elements and tasks. Each task consists of a number of steps.

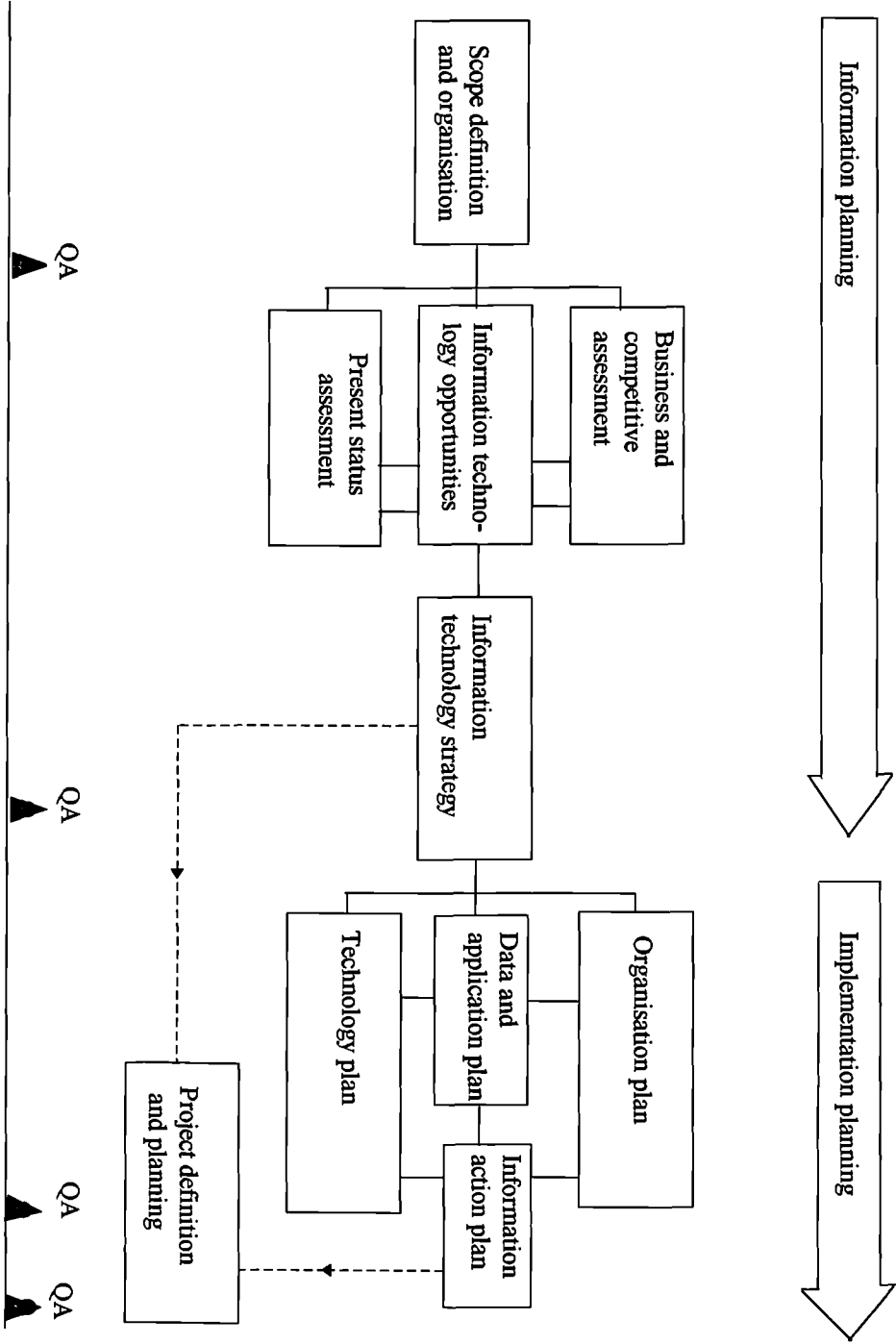


Figure 2.13 Information planning in METHOD/1
Source: Adopted from Fidler and Rogerson (1996)

2.4.7 The Business Systems Planning (BSP) Methodology

The Business Systems Planning (BSP) methodology was developed by the IBM corporation in the late 1960s. This methodology was first marketed in 1970, but is still available to customers today. According to Alter (1992) the BSP methodology is useful either when an organisation automates its IS for the first time, or when it undertakes a major system overhaul.

Wysocki and Young (1990) give six objectives of the BSP methodology. First, the BSP methodology provides an IS plan that supports business needs and is integral with the business plan. Second, it provides a method to establish information priorities. Third, it helps for the development of long life IS, and protecting the IS investment because systems based on the business processes are generally unaffected by organisational changes. Fourth, it provides data processing resources that are managed for the most efficient and effective support of the business goals. Fifth, it improves relationships between the IS department and user by providing IS that are responsive to user requirements. Sixth, it identifies data as an organisational resource that should be planned, managed, and controlled in order to be used effectively by everyone in the organisation.

BSP involves top-down planning with bottom-up implementation, as it relies on two types of analysis: the business processes analysis (top-down) and the data elements analysis (bottom-up). Figure 2.14 illustrates both the top-down and bottom-up relationship in BSP and the two above mentioned analysis types. Four phases are shown in the figure with respect to business processes analysis. The first phase, “business objectives” explains current goals and strategies and how these goals and strategies may change in the future. The second phase, “business organisation” describes current information architecture and future design of information architecture. The third phase, “business processes” looks at the various functional areas, such as production, sales and marketing, and strategic planning for these areas. The final phase, “business data” involves identifying the data generated or used by the various business processes.

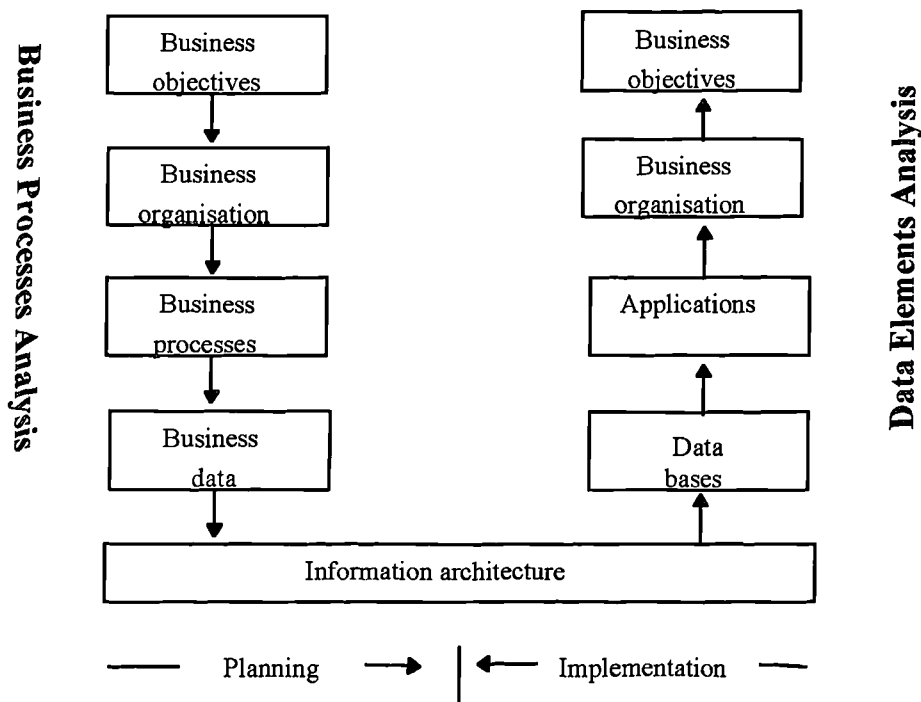


Figure 2.14 Top-down analysis with bottom-up implementation
Source: Adapted from Wysocki and Young (1990)

BSP enables a comprehensive overview of all the business processes and all the data elements, which are then combined in a matrix form to determine which elements are used in which processes. An example matrix is presented in Figure 2.14.

Both the business processes and business data are identified through extensive interviews and discussions of the business plan. The planning phase is completed once the information needs of all managers in the organisation have been determined. The outcomes of this phase will be a definition of current IS resources, the identification of additional IS resources, and the priorities of these IS resources. The design and development phase begins with the information architecture phase and includes the development and modification of both new and existing data bases. This exercise is required for defining new computer applications. The applications step consists of the definition of specific projects to be undertaken, development priorities, functional specifications and the new applications to support business processes which in turn contribute to business objectives.

Data Classes \ Processes	MF	SP	WIP	INV	PP	OO	VQ	VH	END	ED
Sales Planning	U	C								
Prod. Planning		U	U	U						
Daily Scheduling		U	U	U						
Vendor Qualification							C			
Ordering					C	C	U	C		
Receiving						C		C		
Inventory Control				C						
Manufacturing			C	U					C	C
Process Engineering									U	U
Product Engineering									U	
Equip. Maintenance										U

Note: MF= marketing forecast
 INV= Inventory
 VQ= vendor qualification
 ED= equipment data

SP= sales plan
 PP= purchase plan
 VH= vendor history
 C= process creates the data

WIP= work-in-process
 OO= open orders
 END= Engineering data
 U= process uses the data

Figure 2.15 An example process/data class matrix
 Source: Adopted from Alter (1992)

2.4.8 The Customer's Resource Life Cycle (CRLC)

The Customer Resource Life Cycle (CRLC) methodology was developed and described in detail by Ives and Learmonth (1984). They state that by examining customer relationships via this methodology, companies can determine not only when opportunities (and threats) exist for strategic applications of IS, but also what specific applications should be developed. This methodology allows the customer's perspective to be adopted in planning IS to differentiate products and services. Ives and Learmonth (1984) describe four main stages of the CRLC.

The first stage, requirements determination, determines how much of a resource is needed by customers, and specifies resource attributes. For example, several taxi firms have installed terminals in their cabs that display the number of empty cabs cruising in various

cab zones; drivers use this information to calculate where further taxi coverage is needed (Ives and Learmonth, 1984).

The second stage, acquisition determination, determines where customers will buy a resource, order a quantity of a resource from the supplier, transfer funds or extend credit, take possession of a resource and/or ensure that a resource meets specifications. For example, the American Airlines system displays potential flights after the user specifies a departure point, destination city, a time and date of flight. The system itself issues the ticket after the reservation of a seat.

The third stage, stewardship, determines how to add to an existing inventory, control access and use of a resource, upgrade a resource if conditions change and/or to maintain a resource if necessary. For example, some garage owners use IS to send out annual reminders to people whose maintenance contracts are about to lapse, or notify customers that they are due for service visits.

The fourth stage, retirement, determines when to move or dispose of inventory and to monitor where and how much is spent on a resource. For example, many medical stores, as a service to their customers, provide a detailed record of their purchase, for income tax purposes.

This methodology allows management to adopt the customer's perspective in the application of IS and Information Technology (IT), to differentiate its products or services from their competitors. The CRLC provides a structure for identifying opportunities. This methodology views each step as an opportunity to gain competitive advantage, and provides guidance for identifying potentially important opportunities for applying IS competitively.

2.5 Selecting a SISP Methodology for an Organisation

There is no ideal SISP methodology (Earl, 1996C; Ward and Griffiths 1996; Robson, 1997; James, 1999; Shay and Rothaermel, 1999) which can be used in every organisation to support the SISP process. The selection of an appropriate SISP methodology is often difficult because there are many to choose from (including those described in the previous section), and different methodologies are applicable in different situations (Bowman et al., 1983; Pyburn, 1983; Sullivan, 1985; Earl, 1996C; Doherty et al., 1999). For example, Mainelli and Miller (1988) reported that British Rail found VCA difficult to employ in their planning activities but found CSF to be beneficial. It is therefore important to assess the needs of an organisation carefully and then to employ the most appropriate methodology. Lederer and Sethi's (1988) framework for characterising different SISP methodologies was used to review the representative subgroup. Figure 2.16 illustrates this review. It shows that different methodologies cover different areas, for example some methodologies support the definition of a data architecture and others do not, some have automated support and others do not, some have both impact and alignment and others only impact or alignment, and some have both an internal and external focus and others do not.

Methodology	Impact or Alignment	Focus	Defines Data Architecture	Automated Support
1. CSF	Can be both	Decision Information	No	No
2. Porter's Five Forces Model	Impact	External	No	No
3. Value Chain Analysis	Impact	Internal Operations	No	No
4. Strategic Option Generator	Impact	Internal and External	No	No
5. The KPMG Approach	Alignment	Internal and External	Yes	Yes
6. Method/1 from The Andersen Consulting	Alignment	Projects	No	Yes
7. Business Systems Planning	Primarily Alignment	Data	Yes	No
8. Customer Resources Life Cycle	Impact	Customers	No	No

Figure 2.16 Some characteristics of different SISP methodologies
Source: Adapted from Lederer and Sethi (1988)

However, one aspect, that is, the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology, is not mentioned in this figure. Yet, it has been suggested by Lybareas et al. (1993), that organisational culture must be taken into account at the time of implementation of a SISP framework, and known IS planning frameworks should be amended to fit specific cultural values. Hence, there is a need to investigate the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology and the organisational culture of an organisation, so that SISP methodology and/or organisational culture can be altered if there is any mismatch between them for cultural alignment. Although, Soft Systems Methodology - SSM (see Checkland and Scholes, 1990; and Lewis, 1994) and Multiview methodology (see Avison and Wood-Harper, 1990; and Avison et al., 1998) also consider organisational culture. These methodologies are for the development of systems and not for strategic IS planning, whereas, this section argues for the consideration of organisational culture at the time of IS planning.

2.6 Summary

This chapter has described the importance of information, IS for business and alignment of IS with the business. It has also introduced a dynamic view of SISP and has provided an overview of several SISP methodologies. Effective IS are important for the success of the business. SISP helps in the planning for development and implementation of effective IS. SISP is essentially a process undertaken by both IS and management personnel, aimed primarily to facilitate alignment between business plans, objectives and IS plans. A three layered view of SISP methodology is given to describe the relationships among key SISP terms; SISP methodology, SISP techniques and SISP tools.

There is no ideal comprehensive SISP methodology or technique which covers all areas of SISP. It is important to assess the needs carefully and then to employ the most appropriate methodology. Selection of an appropriate SISP methodology is often difficult because there are many methodologies, and different methodologies are applicable in different situations. Whatever methodology or combination of methodologies are chosen, it needs to be in line with the prevailing culture of the organisation in which it is to be used. The next

chapter provides remaining part of the literature review for this research which covers organisational culture.

Chapter Three

ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE: *A LITERATURE REVIEW*

3.1 Introduction

Chapter 2 has described the importance of SISP to the successful identification of IS opportunities, has introduced some of the available SISP methodologies and has mentioned the importance of cultural alignment between a SISP methodology and the organisation using it. This chapter provides an overview of organisational culture, discussing its importance for organisations and the factors that influence it. This chapter also strengthens the argument that SISP, like IS, needs a culturally compatible environment in order to work effectively.

Organisational culture, also referred to as corporate culture, is still a relatively new, controversial and little understood concept. Many academic books and papers (for example, Gorman, 1989; Drennan, 1992; Schein, 1992; Brown, 1998; Guillen, 1998; Martin, 1998; Brooks, 1999; Chivers and Darling, 1999; Witte and Muijen, 2000), focus on the concept of organisational culture and many of them claim that culture makes a major difference to organisational effectiveness.

The structure of the chapter is as follows. Section 3.2 appraises the many definitions of organisational culture given by several authors, and selects a definition which will be adhered to throughout the remainder of the thesis. Section 3.3 discusses the importance of corporate understanding of organisational culture. Several key approaches to organisational culture are discussed in Section 3.4, and Section 3.5 provides a critical

appraisal of these approaches. Drennan's twelve most important factors (Drennan, 1992) that influence organisational culture are described in Section 3.6. Section 3.7 provides an analysis of Drennan's factors. SISP and organisational culture are discussed in Section 3.8. Finally, Section 3.9 provides a summary of this chapter and some concluding remarks.

3.2 Defining Organisational Culture

The term "organisational culture" is defined by many authors (for example, Sethia and Von Glinow, 1985; Scholz, 1987; Denison, 1990; Hofstede, 1991; Vecchio, 1991; Drennan, 1992; Schein, 1992; Williams et al., 1993; Luthans, 1995; Brown, 1998; Brooks, 1999; Greenberg, 1999; Kreitner et al., 1999). The definitions given by these authors appear similar, but on closer inspection each has a slight different emphasis. For example, Denison (1990), Hofstede (1991), Drennan (1992), Williams et al. (1993), Luthans (1995) and Kreitner et al. (1999) are of the opinion that organisational culture exists in an organisation and the employees follow that culture, whereas Sethia and Von Glinow (1985), Scholz (1987), Vecchio (1991), Brown (1998), Brooks (1999), and Greenberg (1999) are of the opinion that organisational culture is developed via the behaviour of the employees. Indirectly they are saying the same thing; that organisational culture comprises the behaviour, attitudes and beliefs of the employees, which leads them to think and act in a certain way. This view is shared and adopted in this thesis. In this definition, behaviour refers to the way employees act or react, attitudes refer to employees' responding in a consistent manner (favourably or unfavourably) to a particular thing or idea, and beliefs refer to what employees think is or is not true.

Organisational culture exists in all organisations regardless of size (Tayeb, 1988). Each organisation is different in the way it is structured, in the way it operates and in the outputs (products or services) it produces (Brown, 1995; Fidler and Rogerson, 1996; Wood et al., 1998). Some organisations may have a strong culture and others may have a weak culture (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Hofstede, 1991; Luthans, 1995; Martin, 1998). Very strong organisational cultures can have disadvantages as well as advantages (Gorman, 1989; Brown, 1998; Martin, 1998). A major disadvantage is that they can prove particularly

resistant to change. A major benefit of a very strong organisational culture is as a source of competitive advantage: a strong organisational culture promotes consistency, coordination and control, and reduces uncertainty and enhances motivation, and therefore may improve the organisation's chances of being successful in the market place. The strength of the culture depends on sharedness and intensity, where sharedness is the degree to which the employees have the same values and intensity is the degree of commitment of the employees to the values. An ideal working culture is one where employees are satisfied (less tension or pressure) and their contribution (productivity) is at maximum (Norton, 1994).

Organisational culture can be managed and changed (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Sethia and Von Glinow, 1985; Schein, 1985; Scholz, 1987; Hofstede, 1991; Drennan, 1992; McDonald and Gandz, 1992; Williams et al., 1993; Baron 1994; Luthans, 1995; Greenberg, 1999; Kreitner et al., 1999), but it cannot be changed overnight. Martin and Siehl (1983) and Turner (1986) argue that culture simply exists and can be neither created nor changed. This view is not shared by this author, because there are many examples where organisational culture has been changed successfully (see Section 3.3) even though it takes time and patience. One of the important activities of management in the organisation is to create and manage organisational culture, and an essential talent of management is their ability to work with organisational culture. As Fidler and Rogerson (1996, p.249) have stated, "Andersen Consulting, quite rightly, argues that senior management provides leadership for the organisation and establishes its culture." This view is also supported by Martin (1998) and Greenberg (1999).

3.3 The Importance of Organisational Culture

Many commentators, for example, McKinsey (Guest, 1992), have incorporated an organisational review as part of their "formulae for organisational success", which has had great appeal to businesses. This idea of organisational review came on the realisation that organisations in different countries were structured and behaved differently (Brown, 1995).

The remarkable success of Japan in the 1980s in matching and exceeding the levels of productivity, quality, innovation and service attained in western economies has emphasised the importance of the values shared by Japanese management and workers. These shared values determined the success of Japanese business at that time (Gorman, 1989; Guillen, 1998). They resulted in behavioural norms that demonstrated a commitment to quality, problem solving and cooperative efforts to a greater degree than in comparable organisations outside Japan. Ouchi (1981) suggests that it is possible to adopt some of the Japanese management practices and to change the culture of individual organisations.

Some organisations have to change their culture in order to remain competitive or to survive (McDonald and Gandz, 1992; Luthans, 1995; Kreitner et al., 1999). This is because the environment may have changed and therefore, previous cultural values are now not in accordance with those needed for survival. For example, the culture of Apple Computer was creative and innovative in the 1980's. However, as they began broadening and trying to appeal to both the educational and the business markets, the firm began to run into trouble. Its culture was not able to compete in an increasingly cut-throat market, and it began to lose money. Hence, a change was necessary for Apple Computer to survive (Luthans, 1995). It was also the case with the Pepsi-Cola Company (Scholz, 1987). Sethia and Von Glinow (1985, p.401) state "to become a successful challenger to the Coca-Cola Company, the Pepsi-Cola Company had to systematically change the emphasis of its culture from passivity to aggressiveness." From these examples, it can be seen that an examination of cultural issues at the organisational level is essential for a basic understanding of what goes on in organisations, and how they are run and how they can be improved (Schein, 1985). Therefore, it is important that managers are aware of the organisational culture so that they can facilitate working to attain productivity, quality and novelty.

As an organisation changes and grows, its culture needs to change as well to meet new realities, if current culture is inadequate to meet present and future needs (Banner, 1995, Brooks, 1999). An adequate culture is one which helps to achieve those needs of the

organisation. Even a positive culture (coherent with business goals) can become dysfunctional if ignored. For example, in a software company there was a practice of process ordering. The analysts first analysed the situation and then they handed over their report to the programmers for coding. During the programming, programmers used to contact the analysts many times for further explanations. In this way there was always a delay in the completion of the software. The management quickly realised this and changed the process ordering into job or project ordering. Now the analysts and programmers work together and hence a lot of time is saved. In this way, the process culture of the organisation was changed to one based on jobs or projects, which more appropriately reflected the present and future needs of the organisation.

Another example of a change of culture is the case of British Airways. After its denationalization, its culture was transformed from one which was described as bureaucratic and militaristic to one that may now be described as service-oriented and market-driven (Brown, 1998; Kreitner et al., 1999). The success of this cultural change is evident from its healthy share price, and its cargo and passenger revenues in the early 1990's.

From the above, it is clear that organisational culture plays an important role in the success of the organisation. Hence it is important to know one's organisational culture so that it can be change (if inadequate to meet present or future needs) according to the needs of the organisation.

There appear to be two main ways of describing organisational culture in the current literature. Some authors (such as, Handy, 1976; Hofstede, 1980; Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Quinn and McGrath, 1985; Sethia and Von Glinow, 1985; Scholz, 1987; Wiener 1988; and Hofstede, 1991) attempt to describe organisational culture by classifying the organisational culture in one or more ways. The approaches used to describe organisational culture are detailed in Section 3.4. Other researchers describe organisational culture in relation to factors that are recognised as influences on culture. Drennan is one such researcher that

describes organisational culture on the basis of influencing factors (Drennan, 1992). The factors that influence organisational culture are described in Section 3.6. Figure 3.1 summarises the relationships between the typologies and factors views of describing organisational culture. This figure shows that these factors are input for the formation of organisational culture and resulting behaviour, attitudes and beliefs of employees in the organisation are output.

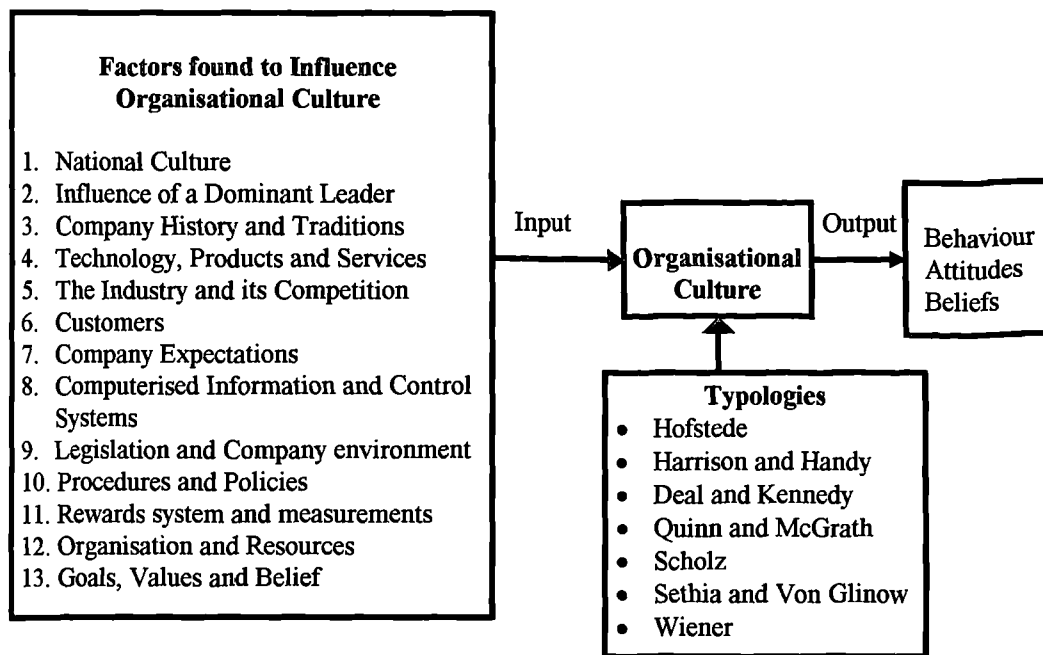


Figure 3.1 Describing organisational culture: relationships between typological and factors views

However, Johnson and Scholes (1999) have stated a third, albeit a less significant way of describing the organisational culture, that is, “The Cultural Web” (see Figure 3.2). Johnson and Scholes (1999, p.73) state “the culture web is a representation of the taken-for-granted assumptions, or paradigm, of an organisation and the physical manifestation of organisational culture”.

• The Paradigm

The Cultural Web is based on the premise that there is a core set of values, beliefs and assumptions commonly held throughout the organisation which Johnson and Scholes (1999) refer to as the paradigm. The way the employees of an organisation behave

towards each other and outsiders provides a distinctive organisational competence. The employees take-for-granted about how things happen in the organisation. The paradigm is comprises 6 elements which are now described.

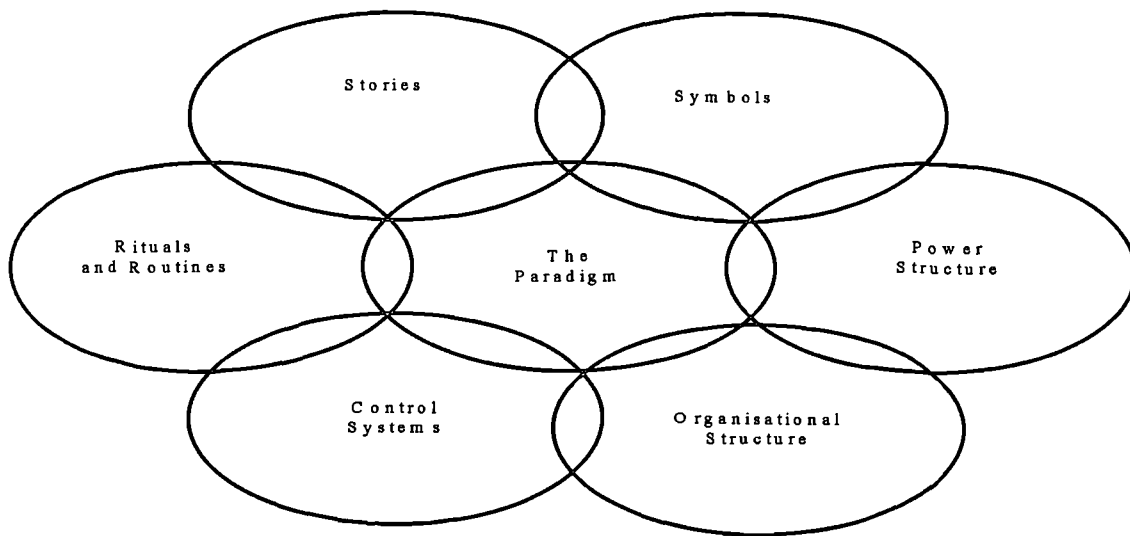


Figure 3.2 The cultural web

Source: Adopted from Johnson and Scholes (1999)

- **The Rituals**

The rituals are the special events through which employees learn what is important in the organisation. The employees learn this from the organisational processes (such as, training programmes, assessment procedures and promotion). It may also include formal and informal meetings and social gathering of employees of the organisation.

- **The Stories**

The stories are about the important events, successes, disasters, heroes, villains and mavericks told by employees to each other. Most of these have evolved over the years and have become part of the organisation's folklore (Ward and Peppard, 1996).

- **The Symbols**

The symbols includes logos, office structure, dress code, job titles and the type of language and terminology commonly used in an organisation. They are often so much ingrained in daily life that they may not be recognised (Ward and Peppard, 1996).

- **The Power Structure**

The power structure relates to distribution of power within employees of the organisation as expected and accepted by the less powerful employees of the organisation.

- **The Control Systems**

The pay, measurements and reward systems in an organisation have great impact on quantity or quality of work. These examples of control systems serve to highlight what is valued by the organisation.

- **The Organisational Structure**

The organisational structure reflects power structures and what is important in the organisation. Functions, departments, geographically-based business units, product-based business units, flat management hierarchies, large bureaucratic hierarchies, are all examples of how the structure of an organisation can impact the paradigm (Ward and Peppard, 1996)

Johnson and Scholes (1999) acknowledge that there are a variety of influences on an individual in an organisation. Figure 3.3 provides a summary of these influences. These influences are described below.

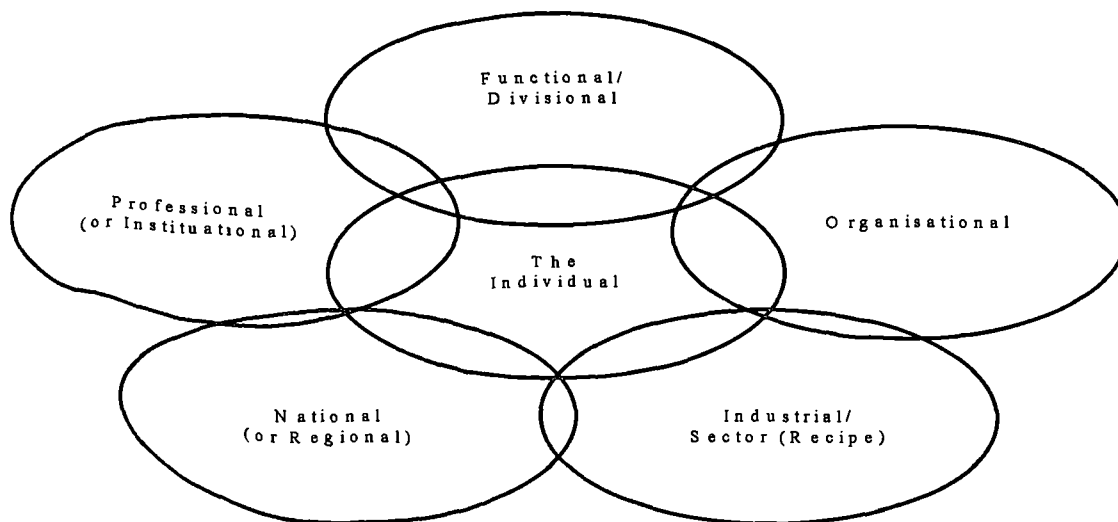


Figure 3.3 The cultural frames of reference
Source: Adopted from Johnson and Scholes (1999)

- **National and Regional Cultures**

National and regional cultures have great influence on individuals in an organisation (such as attitude towards work, authority, equality and number of other important factor.

- **Professional and Institutional Cultures**

A professional or institutional group's (such as, a trade union or professional association) values and beliefs have a great influence on individuals in an organisation. There might be key differences in expectations when purposes become specific during discussion about the priorities and resource allocation.

- **Industrial Sector (Recipe).**

An industry recipe is a set of assumptions held in common within an industry about organisational purposes and a shared wisdom on how to manage organisations. There are some advantages and disadvantage of this influence. The advantages are in terms of maintaining standards and consistency between individual providers. The disadvantage is that employees may not look beyond their industry in thinking through strategies for the future.

- **Organisational Culture**

The values, beliefs and taken-for-granted assumptions are the real core of an organisation.

- **Functional and Divisional Cultures**

Different departments or divisions may have different sub-cultures within them. For example, there are likely to be differences between geographically dispersed divisions in a multinational company as well as between functional groups such as finance, marketing and production.

This approach (cultural web) is not considered further in the research for the following reason.

- These five cultural influences are indeed part of thirteen important factors found to influence organisational culture (see Figure 3.1).

3.4 Approaches/Typologies of Organisational Culture

This section describes several key typologies of organisational culture that are presented by researchers. During this section the terms “approaches”, “typologies”, “classifications” and “types of organisational cultures” are used interchangeably. This reflects the loose way in which other authors use these terms, (for example, Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Scholz, 1987; Brown, 1998). Typologies are useful because they give an overview of an organisation’s culture and enable simple comparison between the organisational cultures of different organisations. Approaches/typologies are critically evaluated in Section 3.5.

3.4.1 The Harrison and Handy Typology

Harrison (1972) classifies organisational culture as one of four types; power, role, task and person, and Handy (1976), Handy (1993) illustrates these four organisational cultures by using simple pictograms and making reference to Greek mythology (as shown in Figure 3.4). Later, Handy (1995) describes these four cultures (power, role, task and person) by the names of the four Greek gods (Zeus, Apollo, Athena and Dionysus) respectively.

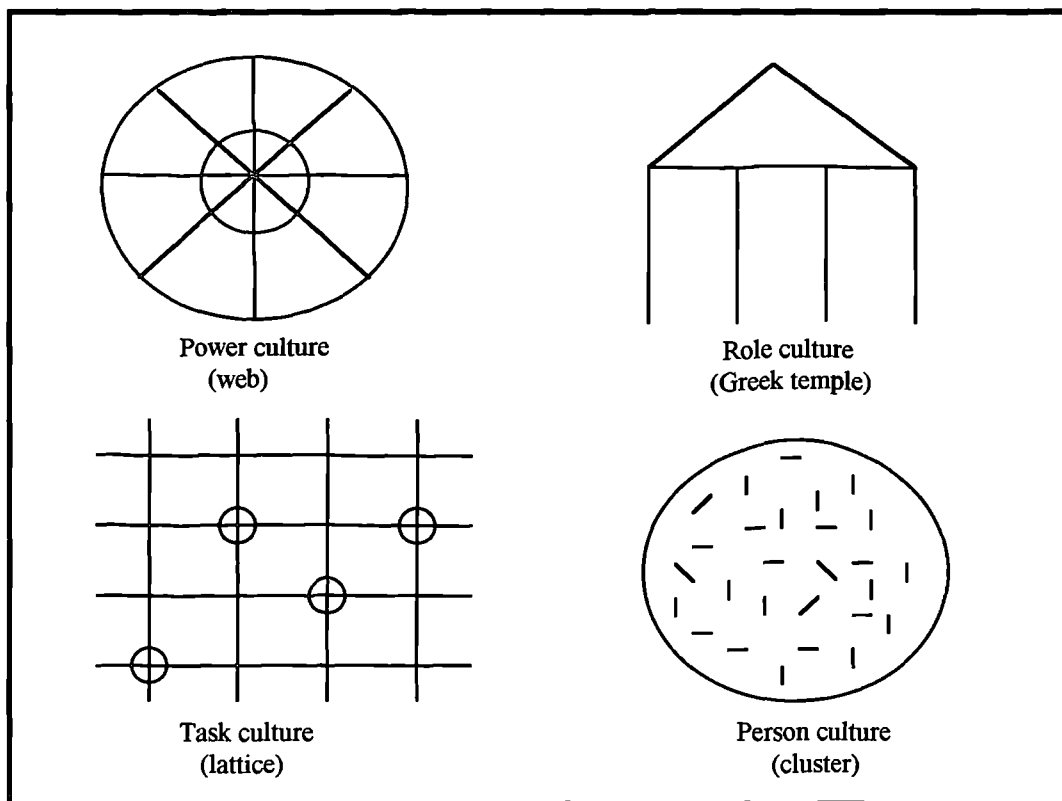


Figure 3.4 Handy's four organisational cultures
Source: Adopted from Handy (1993)

Examining each culture type in turn, the “Power Culture” depends on a central power figure, with rays of power and influence spreading out from that central figure. (Handy (1993) and Handy (1995) depicts the power culture as a web.) The organisation depends on trust and empathy for its effectiveness, and on disclosure of thoughts and personal conversations for communication. There are few rules and procedures, and little bureaucracy. It is a political organisation, in that decisions are taken largely on the outcome of a balance of influences rather than on procedural or purely logical grounds. This culture, and organisations based on them, are proud and strong. They can move quickly and can react well to threat or danger. However, whether they do react quickly and/or in the right direction depends greatly on the person or persons at the centre.

Within the so-called “Role Culture”, the role, or job description of an organisation’s employee is more important than the individual who fills it. Individuals are selected for satisfactory performance of a role, and the role is usually so described that a range of individuals could fill it. Performance over and above the role description is not required, and indeed can be disruptive. Position power is the major power source, and rules and procedures are major methods of influence.

Organisations with role culture will succeed as long as they can operate in a stable environment so that tested organisational rules will continue to work. Where the organisation can control its environment, either by monopoly (exclusive possession or control of the commodity or service) or by oligopoly (limited competition between a few organisations), where the market is either stable or predictable or controllable, or where the product-life is a long one, then this type of culture can thrive. Change is not a priority feature of role cultures. Role cultures therefore offer security and predictability to the individual. The role culture can, however, be frustrating for the individual who is power-orientated or desires control over his or her work, and who is eagerly ambitious or more interested in results than method. Role cultures will be found in organisations where economies of scale are more important than flexibility or where technical expertise and depth of specialisation are more important than product innovation or product cost.

The “Task Culture” is job or project-oriented. It brings together the appropriate resources, and the right people at the right level of the organisation, and lets them work out the most appropriate activities. Influence is based on expert knowledge rather than on position or personal power. It is team-oriented, where the outcome, the result and the product of team work tend to prevail over individual objectives, and the efficiency and effectiveness of the organisation. Thus, individuals find this culture reflects a high degree of control over work. Flexibility, adaptability and mutual respect, being earned based upon expertise rather than age or status, are the characteristics of this type of culture.

The task culture is appropriate in organisational situations where flexibility and sensitivity to the market or environment are important. Sometimes the task culture does not enable economies of scale or the development of a great depth of expertise because it is a group-oriented and no one puts maximum effort into group tasks (Brown, 1998). The task culture therefore thrives where speed of reaction, integration, sensitivity and creativity are more important than depth of specialisation. The task culture can quickly evolve into a role or power culture with either more emphasis on rules and procedures or an increase in influence from the leader respectively (Brown, 1998). It develops in those organisations that can focus on particular jobs or projects to which teams may be assigned. For example, product groups of marketing departments, general management consultancies, merger, take-over and new venture sections of banks, and advertising agencies, are all places within organisations where task cultures might flourish.

The individual is the central point within the so-called “Person Culture”. Individuals only group with others if it serves their own best interests. In the person culture the individuals themselves decide on their own work allocations, with rules and coordination mechanisms being of minimal significance. Unlike other cultures, the individual has almost complete autonomy, influence is shared, and if power is to be exercised it is usually on the basis of expertise. Barristers’ chambers, architects’ partnerships, hippy communes, social groups, families, and some small consultancy firms, often exhibit this person culture (Handy, 1993).

3.4.2 The Hofstede Dimensions of National Culture

National Culture influences organisational culture and therefore needs to be included in the review (Drennan, 1992, Maund, 1999). Hofstede (1980) viewed the national culture of a country on the basis of four dimensions, and these dimensions are supported as good descriptors of national culture by several other researchers (for example, Williams et al., 1993; Harvey, 1997; Sethi and Lederer, 1997; Martin, 1998; Brooks, 1999). It should be noted that second edition Hofstede (1984), Hofstede (1991) and Hofstede (1994), Hofstede still utilises the concepts developed in the 1st edition (1980) regarding these four dimensions of national culture.

The first dimension of national culture proposed by Hofstede is Power Distance. This examines the extent to which unequal distribution of power is expected and accepted by the less powerful employees of organisations. In “high-power” distance organisations there is greater reliance by the less powerful employees on those who hold power. Conversely, in “low-power” distance organisations, decentralisation of activities is more likely, and subordinates expect to be consulted by bosses. Greater differences in power are associated with greater differences of rewards, privileges, and opportunities between bosses and subordinates (Hofstede, 1984). Harrison and Handy’s power culture, described in Subsection 3.4.1, and Hofstede’s power distance concept are closely related; the fundamentals of both concepts are related to the unequal distribution of power.

The second of Hofstede’s dimensions is Uncertainty Avoidance. This is defined as the extent to which human beings respond to threats they feel from uncertain or unknown situations. (The way in which employees deal with uncertainty in organisations is by following understood and trusted rules.) In a more uncertainty-avoiding environment, employees feel a great need for safety by following rules.

The third dimension, Individualism, describes the relationship between the individuals and society at large. In an individualistic society, people take care of only their immediate families. In contrast, in a collectivist society people care for members of an extended family. The level of individualism in a society influences the level of compliance of an employee with organisational requirements: collectivist societies result in greater emotional dependence of employees on their organisations. In individualistic societies, hiring and promotion decisions should be based on skills and rules, whereas collective societies take the employee’s ability in group situations into account (Brown, 1998) when making such decisions.

The fourth and final dimension, Masculinity, centres on differences relating to masculine and feminine traits. According to Hofstede, males are assertive, tough and focused on material success, whereas females are nurturing, modest and concerned with quality of life.

In high-masculinity organisations, employees are decisive and assertive. In such organisations, competition among colleagues and high performance are expected, disputes tend to be resolved by conflicts, and the motto is one of “living in order to work.” In contrast, in high-femininity organisations, employees’ focus is on equality, solidarity, and quality of life. Conflicts are resolved by compromise and negotiation, and the motto is one of “working in order to live.”

In 1991, Hofstede supplemented his original work with a fifth dimension of national culture; Confucian Dynamism. Confucian dynamism examines the extent to which a culture takes a short or long term view of life. This dimension was proposed by Michael Bond, who developed it from the ideas of Chinese philosophers and social scientists in particular countries (Hofstede, 1991). Long-term orientation countries stress the adaptation of traditions to a modern context, place definite limits on respect for social and status obligations, are sparing with resources, stress perseverance and are concerned with “virtue”. In contrast, short-term orientation countries have high respect for traditions, emphasise the importance of social and status obligations, approve conspicuous consumption, demand quick results, and are concerned with “truth”.

In 1991, Hofstede turned his attention to organisational culture classification. He developed the following six dimensions with which to categorise organisational cultures.

- **Process Oriented to Results Oriented**

In a process oriented culture, employees avoid taking risks and make only limited (satisfactory) efforts in their jobs. Each day appears pretty much the same as any other. In a results oriented culture, however, employees feel comfortable in unfamiliar situations and put in maximum effort. Each day appears to bring new challenges for them.

- **Employee Oriented to Job Oriented**

In an employee oriented culture, the organisation takes responsibility for employee welfare, and decisions are taken by groups or committees. In a job oriented culture,

however, the organisation is only interested in the work employees do, and not in their personal and family welfare.

- **Parochial to Professional**

In a parochial culture, employees identify with their organisation. The employees feel that in hiring them, the company takes their social and family background into account as much as their job competence. In contrast, in a professional culture, employees feel that the organisation hires solely on the basis of job competence. The parochial type of culture has been often associated with Japanese companies (Hofstede, 1991; Hofstede, 1994).

- **Open Systems to Closed Systems**

In an open systems culture, employees consider both the organisation and its employees open to newcomers and outsiders. New employees take little time to feel at home. In a closed systems culture, however, the organisation and its employees appear closed and secretive, even among insiders. New employees need significant settling in time.

- **Internal Structuring: Loose Control to Tight Control**

In loose control organisations, employees feel that there is no control over costs or punctuality. In contrast, employees are cost-conscious and punctual in tight control organisations.

- **Customer Orientation to Non-customer Orientation**

Customer oriented organisations are market driven. Such organisations emphasise the meeting of customer needs. Results are more important than procedures. In contrast the major emphasis of non-customer oriented organisations is on procedures rather than results.

Hofstede (1991), and Hofstede (1994) relates his dimensions of organisational culture to the dimensions of national culture. He correlates “power distance” with the “process oriented vs. results oriented” dimension, and “high-power distance cultures” with “process

orientation” and “low-power distance cultures” with “results orientation”. “Uncertainty avoidance” is correlated with the “open systems vs. closed systems” dimension, where “high-uncertainty avoidance” is associated with “closed systems” and “low-uncertainty” avoidance with “open systems”. “Individualism” and “masculinity” are associated with the “parochial vs. professional” dimension; “high-individualism” and “high-masculinity” with “professional” and “low-individualism” and “low-masculinity” with “parochial.” Interestingly, Hofstede’s dimensions of organisational culture have not become visibly popular among researchers of organisational culture, as no references were seen in the existing literature to this work. Rather, researchers have examined organisational culture using Hofstede’s national culture dimensions (for example, Williams et al., 1993; Sethi and Lederer, 1997; Harvey, 1997).

3.4.3 The Deal and Kennedy Typology

As shown in Figure 3.5, Deal and Kennedy (1982) classified organisational culture into four types on the basis of degree of risk and speed of feedback.

		Feedback	
		Rapid	Slow
Risk	High	The tough-guy, macho culture	The bet-your-company culture
	Low	The work-hard/play-hard culture	The process culture

Figure 3.5 An overview of Deal and Kennedy typology

The “Tough-Guy, Macho Culture” prevails in those organisations where individuals have to take high risks, and receive rapid feedback on actions and decisions. A tough attitude towards work and colleagues is a feature of this culture. It is successful in high-risk and quick return environments, but unsuitable for long-term investment (Brown, 1998). Both Deal and Kennedy (1982) and Brown (1998).state that police departments, surgeons,

management consulting organisations and the entertainment industry have been associated with this organisational culture.

The “Work-Hard/Play-Hard Culture” prevails in those organisations where risk is low and feedback is quick. The work-hard/play-hard culture is often misled by success, forgetting that today’s successes may become tomorrow’s failures (Deal and Kennedy, 1982). No individual really makes a difference: the team produces the results. Sales organisations, such as real estate companies, computer sales companies, and consumer companies like McDonald’s, are likely examples of this kind of organisational culture (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Brown, 1998).

The “Bet-Your-Company Culture” prevails in those organisations where risk is high and feedback is slow. It is a good culture for organisations wanting to produce high quality products and inventions, but slow response times can cause them problems with, for example, cash flow. Large aircraft manufacturing organisations and oil companies have been associated with this organisational culture (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Brown, 1998), as these types of organisations may invest millions in a project and it may take a long time to ascertain the success or failure of the project.

The “Process Culture” prevails in those organisations where risk is low and feedback is slow. Owing to the slow feedback, employees tend to focus on how they do something rather than what they do (Brown, 1998). There is an emphasis on hierarchy, formality and the importance of the position of power. This culture is effective for known and predictable business environments, but ineffective for situations requiring quick reactions and creativity. Banks, insurance companies and civil service have been used as examples of this kind of organisational culture (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Brown, 1998).

3.4.4 The Quinn and McGrath Typology

Quinn and McGrath (1985) provided a four-way classification of organisational culture, based on the transactions associated with information exchanges in organisations. These

transactions are governed by set of rules or norms which reflect dominance of beliefs. The cultures are summarised in Figure 3.6, characterised in terms of decision or approaches, authority/power, assessment and leadership style. Further details of each culture is given in turn below.

Culture type	Decision	Authority/power	Assessment	Leadership style
Rational	Decisive	Competency/ status	Output	Directive
Ideological	Intuition	Charisma/values	Efforts by individuals/ interest in growth	Inventive and risk-oriented
Consensual	Consensus	Members/informal status	Loyalty	Dominant
Hierarchical	Analysis	Rules/technical skill	Agreed criteria	Conservative/ cautious

Figure 3.6 An overview of Quinn and McGrath typology

Productivity and efficiency are the primary criteria of performance within the Rational Culture. The boss is in charge of organisations with this culture, and control is exercised from the top down. The performance of individuals is evaluated by their productivity, and achievements of pre-specified goals. The salient features of the Rational Culture are aggressiveness, diligence and initiative (McDonald and Gandz, 1992).

The Ideological Culture (Adhocracy) supports broad objectives, such as corporate growth and successful resource acquisition. The leaders hold authority on the basis of charisma. The decisions are often taken as a result of intuition, the leaders are risk-oriented and employees are committed to the organisation. The employees are evaluated on their efforts and are interested in personal development rather than achievements. The features of such a culture are adaptability, autonomy, development and experimentation (McDonald and Gandz, 1992).

The Consensual Culture (Clan) measures performance in terms of group cohesion and morale. The members of the organisation are powerful and their status is informal. Decisions are made by consensus. The individuals are evaluated on the basis of the

relationships they have with others and their loyalty to the organisation. The features of such a culture are courtesy, fairness, moral integrity, social equality, openness, humour, forgiveness, cooperation, consideration and broad-mindedness (McDonald and Gandz, 1992).

In the Hierarchical Culture (Hierarchy), authority is vested in rules and it is enjoyed by those persons who have technical knowledge. Decisions are made on the basis of factual analysis. The employees are evaluated against agreed criteria. The features of such an organisational culture are formality, logic, obedience, cautiousness, economy and orderliness (McDonald and Gandz, 1992).

3.4.5 The Scholz Typologies

Scholz (1987) views organisations with respect to three perspectives, and classifies them using each of these perspectives in turn.

• Evolution-Induced Classification

This reflects the way in which culture changes over time, in the sense that the organisation's culture is examined after a particular time to see if it exhibits a tendency towards either discontinuity or change. An overview of the evolution-induced cultures characterised in terms of personality, time, risk, slogan and change, is given in Figure 3.7.

Culture	Personality	Time	Risk	Slogan	Change
Stable	Introvert	Past	Risk averse	"Don't rock the boat"	No change accepted
Reactive	Introvert	Present	Minimum risk	"Roll with the punches"	Minimum change accepted
Anticipating	Partially introvert. Partially extrovert.	Present	Familiar risk	"Plan ahead"	Incremental change accepted
Exploring	Extrovert	Present and future	Operates on risk	"Be where the action is"	Accepted radical change
Creative	Extrovert	Future	Prefers unfamiliar risks	"Invent the future"	Seeks novel change

Figure 3.7 The evolution-induced model
Source: Adopted from Brown (1998)

The stable and reactive cultures are introverted, risk averse and resistant to change. Alternatively, the exploring and creative cultures are open to new information, new influences, and they welcome and seek change. The anticipating culture falls in between the stable and reactive cultures, and the exploring and creative cultures. It is possible that, at the same time, different departments of an organisation could belong to different types of evolution-induced culture. For example, a production department may have a stable culture, making the same products for many years, and a marketing department may have a creative culture, pioneering new marketing concepts. It is expected that a department's culture will change over time in response to external influences, such as a change in competitor position and numbers.

• Internally-Induced Classification

The internally-induced classification is about how the internal circumstances of an organisation affect and then cause a particular type of culture, that is, a production, bureaucratic or professional culture. An overview of this classification in terms of routiness, standardisation, skill requirements (of employees) and property rights is provided in Figure 3.8. The allocation of transaction costs (that is, the costs of negotiating, monitoring and enforcing the exchanges between employees) for the use of resources are called property rights (Jones, 1983). The culture types are discussed in turn below.

Culture type	Routiness	Standardisation	Skill requirements	Property rights
Production	High	High	Low	Weak
Bureaucratic	Medium	Medium	Medium	Derived from the position
Professional	Low	Low	High	Vested in the person by virtue of skill

Figure 3.8 The Internally-induced model
Source: Adopted from Brown (1998)

A production culture is the outcome of the specification of property rights designed to economise on transaction costs. In this culture, the production process is routine, skill requirements are low and specialised investment in employees are not necessary. Norms and values of this culture can be seen from a transaction cost prospective.

Figure 3.8 shows that in a bureaucratic (inflexible) culture property rights are vested in the position of a person. Even though property rights are vested in the position, they increase the attachment of employees to the organisation and lead to the development of stable and predictable transaction patterns. Since the bureaucratic culture is built on property rights that define authority and status, the attempt to change the distribution or balance of property rights of the employees will lead to resistance (Jones, 1983).

If the production function primarily depends on the skill of specialised personnel then it is called a professional culture. In a professional culture, production requires a specialised skill hence the transaction costs will be high and the task will be non-routine.

- **Externally-Induced Classification**

The externally-induced classification is concerned with how an organisation's environment affects the culture of the organisation. It examines the relationships between the organisation and its environment and the consequences of handling these relationships. For the external-induced classification, Scholz (1987) has adopted the four types of corporate culture which are introduced by Deal and Kennedy (1982). (See Figure 3.5 and Subsection 3.4.3 for details of Deal and Kennedy typology.)

3.4.6 The Sethia and Von Glinow Typology

Sethia and Von Glinow (1985) have classified organisational culture on the basis of organisational rewards systems. The rewards systems they are interested in are financial reward, job content, career, and status (Sethia and Von Glinow, 1985). Figure 3.9 summarises the elements of each reward system and the criteria for rewards. From this, four cultures evolve, and these are described below.

1. Rewards and Their Attributes

a. Kinds of Rewards Available

1. Financial: salary, bonuses, stock option, profit sharing, and various benefits
2. Job content: challenge, responsibility, freedom, feedback, and recognition
3. Career: Job security, training and development programmes, and promotion
4. Status: special facilities and privileges, titles, and committee memberships

b. Attributes of the Rewards Available

1. Superior or inferior: salary, benefits, and training
2. Frequent or infrequent: raises, promotion, and feedback
3. Optional or standard: benefits, privileges, and training

2. Criteria for Rewards

a. Performance: Tangible Outcomes or Results

- Performer: individual, group, and organisation
- Performance: quantity, quality, and timeliness
- Perspective: day-to-day, short-term, long-term

b. Performance: Instrumental Action or Behaviour

- Such as: cooperation vs. competition, risk taking vs. playing it safe, initiative vs. conformity, innovation vs. compliance, helping vs. hindering, communication vs. secrecy

c. Non-Performance: Considerations of Contract or Custom

- Such as: membership, nature of work, external equity, internal equity, tenure, hierarchical position, ease of replacement, terms of employment, contractual obligations

Figure 3.9 Elements of a rewards system

Source: Adopted from Sethia and Von Glinow (1985)

Organisations with an Apathetic Culture show little concern for employees and their performance. The apathetic culture is often governed more by vested interests or political desirability rather than by efficiency and effectiveness (Sethia and Von Glinow, 1985). As described in Figure 3.10, financial rewards are poor, job content rewards are hardest to find, career rewards regarding job security are low, promotions are uncertain and status rewards are highly visible. Performance is not an important criterion for rewards.

Organisations with a Caring Culture look after their employees but do not impose very high standards of employee performance. In this culture (and as described in Figure 3.10), financial rewards are average, job content rewards are average, career rewards are good and status rewards are relatively high. Employees are expected to make reasonable efforts in their day-to-day work.

<div><div>Cultures</div><div>Rewards-system dimensions</div></div>	Apathetic	Caring	Exacting	Integrative
<div><div>1. Kinds of Rewards</div><div>Financial rewards</div><div>Job-content rewards</div><div>Career rewards</div><div>Status difference</div></div>	<div>Poor</div> <div>Poor</div> <div>Poor</div> <div>High</div>	<div>Average</div> <div>Average</div> <div>Good</div> <div>High</div>	<div>Variable</div> <div>Good</div> <div>Average</div> <div>Moderate</div>	<div>Superior</div> <div>Superior</div> <div>Superior</div> <div>Low</div>
<div><div>2. Criteria for Rewards</div><div>Performance: Results</div><div>Performance: Action and behaviour</div><div>Non-performance Consideration</div></div>	<div>Individual success</div> <div>Illusory Manipulation politicking</div> <div>Contract patronage</div>	<div>Reasonable efforts day-to-day</div> <div>Compliance cooperation</div> <div>Membership position</div>	<div>Individual success short-term</div> <div>Efficiency competition</div> <div>Nature of work replaceability</div>	<div>Group/company</div> <div>Innovation independence</div> <div>Equity potential</div>

Figure 3.10 Summary of reward systems in four cultures

Source: Adopted from Sethia and Von Glinow (1985)

Organisations with an Exacting Culture show little sensitivity to employees but are extremely demanding. In this culture (and as described in Figure 3.10), financial rewards can be very good but highly variable, career rewards are few, job security is heavily dependent on performance, and status rewards vary from organisation to organisation.

Organisations with an Integrative Culture show a high concern for employees as well as having high performance expectations. In this culture (and as described in Figure 3.10), financial rewards are superior to the other cultures, job content and career rewards are very attractive, there is high job security, and high quality training is available. Performance is a core value in this culture; the emphasis is on group or company success rather than on individual success. A summary of Sethia's and Glinow's typology, based on the cultures' concern for both people and performance, is provided by Figure 3.11.

		Concern for Performance	
		Low	High
Concern for People	High	Caring culture	Integrative culture
	Low	Apathetic culture	Exacting culture

Figure 3.11 An overview of the Sethia and Glinow typology
Source: Adopted from Sethia and Von Glinow (1985)

3.4.7 The Wiener Typology

Wiener (1988) classified organisational culture on the basis of shared values, in terms of their focus and source. The two dimensions, focus and source of values, yield four types of value systems. The focus of values is classified into either functional or elitist and the source of values is classified into either organisational tradition or charismatic leadership. The resulting four types of value systems, summarised in Figure 3.12, are described in turn below.

		Source of Values	
		Organisational Tradition	Charismatic Leadership
Focus of Values	Functional	Functional-traditional	Functional-charismatic
	Elitist	Elitist-traditional	Elitist-charismatic

Figure 3.12 An overview of Wiener typology
Source: Adopted from Wiener (1988)

- **Functional-Traditional Culture**

This type of culture subscribes to values rooted in tradition; the same or similar values are transferred from the old generation of employees to the new. The values are time-tested

Factors & Qs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 (Q1,2,3)	(1,2)	(2,4) (2,5) (3,5)	(1,all)		(all,11) (1,12)		(all,16) (1,17)	(1,all) (2,18)		(2,24)			(1,32) (2,31) (2,32)
2 (Q4,5,6)	(4,2) (5,2) (5,3)	(all)	(4,7) (5,9)		(4,12)	(4,13) (5,13)			(6,21)	(5,24) (6,24)			
3 (Q7,8,9)	(all,1)	(7,4) (9,5)	(8,9)		(8,11)		(9,16)						
4 (Q10)													
5 (Q11,12)	(11,all) (12,1)		(11,8)		(all)	(all,13)	(all,16)						
6 (Q13,14)		(13,4) (13,5)			(13,all)		(13,16)						(13,33)
7 (Q15,16,17)	(16,all) (17,1)		(16,7) (16,9)		(16,all)	(16,13)	(all)	(16,18)			(17,27)		
8 (Q18,19)	(all,1) (18,2)						(18,16)	(all)					
9 (Q20,21)		(21,6)							(all)	(20,22) (21,23) (21,24)			
10 (Q22,23,24)	(24,2)	(24,5) (24,6)							(22,20) (23,21) (24,21)	(23,24)			
11 (Q25,26,27)							(27,17)				(25,26) (25,27)		
12 (Q28,29)											(all)		
13 (Q30,31,32,33)	(31,2) (32,1) (32,2)										(33,13)		(31,32)

Table 6.24 Summary of association of responses in pairs (within and between factors)

hence this gives stability and predictability to organisational functioning. This type of culture deals with the mode of conduct of employees, goals, functions and style of operations. According to Wiener (1988) it deals with issues such as product quality, customer service, and innovation, which may be expressed by such phrases as “the customer is king”, “never kill a new idea”, and “quality is number one.” The existence of this type of system in Japanese companies has been an important factor in their success (Wiener, 1988).

- **Functional-Charismatic Culture**

This type of culture refers to charismatic leadership. Initial phases of culture development are most frequently characterised by a charismatic value system. The functional-charismatic culture has the potential for effective organisational outcomes. The functional-charismatic system tends to be a transitional phase, ultimately evolving toward a functional-traditional one (Wiener, 1988). A functional-charismatic culture changes into a functional-traditional culture progressively (by the passage of time) as the organisation expands and it needs to establish functions for effective operation. For example, IBM and Walt Disney’s productions moved from functional-charismatic to functional-traditional culture after their expansions (Wiener, 1988). This is because the charismatic leaders were no longer able to control all aspects of their organisations’ operations.

- **Elitist-Traditional Culture**

This type of culture refers to the status, superiority, and importance of the organisation itself, its products and employees, and is reflected in phrases such as “we are number one”, “our product is the best”, and “nice guys finish last” (Wiener, 1988). Elitist values generate strong feelings, such as pride (emphasis on organisational supremacy and superiority) within the organisation. As such this value system sustains a stable, long-term, elitist dimension. Organisations having this type of culture tend to focus on a specific organisational purpose, such as to be the dominant player in a particular market.

• Elitist-Charismatic Culture

This type of culture is characterised by employees' identification with their leader. This culture is less stable and permanent than traditional ones. The lifespan of such values may not be more than the life of the leader. This type of culture is least likely to result in long-term organisational success because the sudden and dramatic success of an organisation prevents the leader from effectively responding to the objective demands of the external environment. For example, high-tech companies (in Boston and Silicon valley in California) have encountered a difficult environment to which they have not effectively responded because they possess this organisational culture (Wiener, 1988). This has subsequently resulted in losses, layoffs and closures.

3.5 A Critical Appraisal of the Existing Typologies

A top level overview of the existing typologies in term of their (inter) relationships is shown in Figure 3.13.

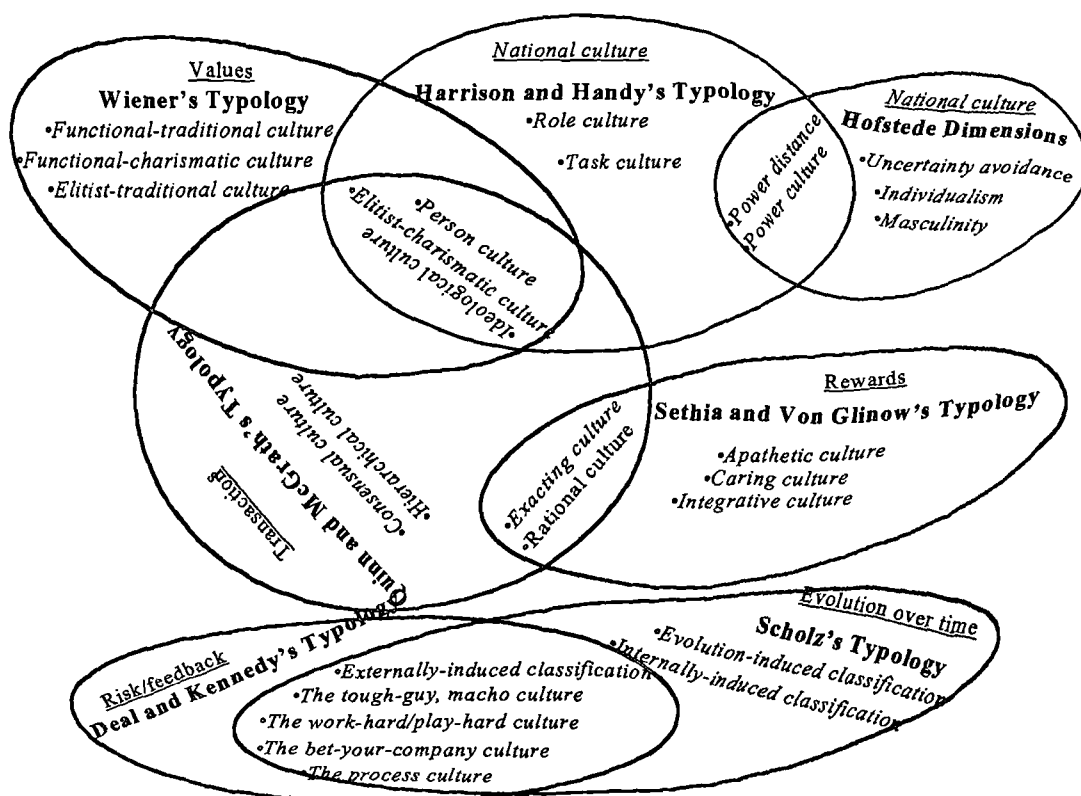


Figure 3.13 A Venn diagram showing the relationships among existing typologies

This figure shows that some typologies overlap with each other in certain area(s), whereas other typologies do so in other area(s). (For example, the Harrison and Handy's typology and Hofstede's dimensions overlap each other on power culture/power distance, which are related to the unequal distribution of power (see second paragraph of Subsection 3.4.2), Quinn and McGrath's typology, and the Sethia and Von Glinow's typology overlap on rational/exacting cultures.) The typologies which overlap with each other and not with others are the Deal and Kennedy's and the Scholz's typologies. Figure 3.13 also shows that the existing typologies describe organisational culture based on different perspectives. For instance, Hofstede, and Harrison and Handy describe organisational culture based on the perspective of "national culture", whereas Wiener describes organisational culture based on the perspective of "values", and Sethia and Von Glinow describe organisational culture based on the perspective of "rewards systems". There is no one typology that covers all perspectives, and therefore, none of these are able, in their current state, to provide a sufficiently complete classification of organisational culture. Furthermore, the existing typologies are criticised on other grounds by several academics. For example, Brown (1998) has criticised the Deal and Kennedy's and the Scholz's typologies. He says that no organisation will precisely fit into any one of the four classifications given in the Deal and Kennedy's typology, and that the classifications given by Scholz (1987) are not new, and hence do not provide an interesting perspective on organisational culture. Wiener (1988) himself realises that it is difficult to precisely fit organisations with weak values into his typology. In 1991, Hofstede gave another (organisational culture) classification in terms of "process oriented to result oriented", "employees oriented to job oriented", "parochial to professional", "open systems to closed systems", "internal structuring (loose control to tight control)", and "customer orientation to non-customer orientation" (see Subsection 3.4.2, organisational culture classification). Brown's (1998, p.44) later work on organisational culture, Maund (1999, p.346), and Keil et al. (2000, p.306) refer to Hofstede's work in general. However, when analysed in detail, it is found that Hofstede's work on organisational culture is not referenced. In fact, Brown, Maund and Keil et al. do refer to Hofstede's work on the dimensions of national culture. It is therefore concluded that the classification of organisational cultures given by Hofstede

(1991) has gained little, if any, popularity among researchers. Indeed, not a single example has been found by this author in the current literature regarding the use of Hofstede's (1991) organisational classification.

To summarise, the appraisal of existing typologies highlights that there is no one typology that will provide a sufficiently complete classification of organisational culture. However, combining these in some way may be possible. The next section looks at another view of organisational culture; that of the factors that influence the nature of organisational culture.

3.6 Drennan's Factors that Influence Organisational Culture

Drennan (1992) stated what he considers to be the twelve most important factors that influence organisational culture. Some other authors, such as Deal and Kennedy (1982), Davis (1985), Handy (1993), Williams et al. (1993), Norton (1994) and Brown, (1995) have also described a subset of these factors. Drennan's factors are analysed in Section 3.7. The factors are as follows.

- **Influence of a Dominant Leader**

The owner or the chief executive can have a great influence in shaping an organisational culture over a period of time (Drennan, 1992; Williams et al., 1993; Brown, 1998; Harris and Ogbonna, 1999). A simple and common sense influence of the leader will not only continue, but will also be enhanced and developed by succeeding managers and executives.

- **Company History and Tradition**

Tradition plays an important role in shaping the culture of an organisation. The majority of the employees feel comfortable in a structure, and in a well known environment. They feel threatened if their normal routines are disturbed (Drennan, 1992).

- **Technology, Products and Services**

Technology, products and services may have a major effect on the culture of an organisation (Drennan, 1992; Williams et al., 1993). This impact may vary from organisation to organisation. For example, in chemical manufacturing organisations, many of the chemicals are dangerous, so, for the safety of the employees, great care and precision is the norm as they handle and process chemical substances. For flying an air force aeroplane, the mental and physical fitness of the pilot, and the fitness of the aircraft, is required to ensure safety, so check-ups of both pilot and aircraft before missions are the norm.

- **The Industry and its Competition**

The nature of the activities an organisation undertakes may have a profound effect on its culture (Williams et al., 1993; Brown, 1998). For example, in some organisations, rapid change and constant innovations by competitors are normal. In response, employees know that product changes are expected, and repeated retraining is part of work. This rapid change and innovations vary from organisation to organisation. For example, in electronics manufacturing organisations, rapid change and constant innovations may be more, hence employees are more prepared for product changes and retraining.

- **Customers**

In organisations that depend greatly on one major customer, the organisational culture is greatly influenced by that customer (Drennan, 1992; Williams et al., 1993; Brown, 1998). For example, the suppliers to Marks and Spencer produce garments according to the customer's specifications. The colour, size, quality, stitching of garments, and even the type of machine for stitching, are determined by Marks and Spencer. The suppliers are contracted to sell their entire product mix to Marks and Spencer. Hence they depend greatly on the satisfaction of Mark and Spencer. In this way their culture is greatly influenced by Marks and Spencer. Another example of the customers' influence on organisational culture is service organisations. Customers can typically move their business if they do not like what they get from service organisations. Hence, in such

organisations the total focus is on the satisfaction of customers, and their culture is therefore greatly influenced by existing and potential customers.

- **Company Expectations**

A company's expectations have a big influence on employees' behaviour (Drennan, 1992). The employees learn how things are done in the organisation, and through these employees' subsequent work, the expectations of the organisation become the major factor that influences the culture of that organisation. For example, if the rewards (such as increments and promotion) are given on the quantity of work, then employees will try to satisfy the quantity rather than quality of work leading to an organisational culture which supports quantity rather than quality of work.

- **Information and Control Systems**

Computerised information and control systems have a great influence on the culture of an organisation (Drennan, 1992). For example, a clerk in an organisation can easily say, "it is somewhere in the computer but, I'm sorry, we don't get a printout until two weeks on Friday." Hence a culture where delays are accepted can flourish if not properly checked by management. In another case computerised information has helped maintenance services to guarantee repair within a short time-scale. The call for repair is automatically forwarded by the computer to the repairman nearest to the customer making the request. The repairman knows the speed of service the customer has contracted for and therefore knows exactly within what time-scale the repair must be completed. Hence a prompt service culture can result from computerised information and control systems.

- **Legislation and Company Environment**

Legislation and national culture have a great impact on the culture of an organisation. For example, in one country it is easier to take permission for working during holidays than in another country. Hence it can become the culture to work during holidays in those countries where permission can be granted easily. In one country membership of the employees' union may be compulsory whereas it might be optional in another country. For

example, in the USA union membership is not compulsory whereas in Australia it is (Drennan, 1992). Therefore, employees might be more committed to follow the union policies in those countries where membership is compulsory than in those countries where membership is optional.

- **Procedures and Policies**

Procedures and policies have a prime role in shaping the culture of an organisation, while on the other hand, they can be the major source of employee frustration and alienation (Handy, 1976; Drennan, 1992). Procedures and policies are necessary as guidelines to help employees do a good job for their organisation, but when they are implemented rigidly they deprive employees of the authority to act promptly in difficult situations. Hence slow or delayed actions/services can become the norm within an organisation.

- **Rewards Systems and Measurement**

If bonuses and promotions are awarded to those who do well then that becomes part of the culture of the organisation. Also, organisations generally measure what is important to them, for example, sales, costs, profit, market share, return on capital, output, and quality. As a result, employees get feedback on their performance. Paying attention to the numbers or quality can, however, become a habit and hence part of the culture.

- **Organisation and Resources**

The availability of financial resources for completing a specific task can make a crucial difference to employees' attitudes (Drennan, 1992). With adequate resources employees can gain the self-confidence to perform to their maximum potential. Employees with less than adequate financial resources can only do the best they can, and a mediocre performance can become the norm of that culture.

- **Goals, Values and Beliefs**

According to Deal and Kennedy (1982), Drennan (1992), and Williams et al. (1993), the goals a management sets and the values it truly believes in, have more influence on

organisational culture than any other factor. Drennan (1992) gives the example of IBM, claiming that the outstanding success of IBM (in the 80s) was due to its unrivaled customer services rather than to its products. They were not first in the market-place, they did not always have the best products, and their products were often expensive (Drennan, 1992), but they still managed to sell more than anybody else because of their goals and beliefs.

3.7 An Analysis of Drennan's Factors

The following amendments are made to Drennan's factors:

- Drennan has placed national culture under the heading legislation and company environment, whereas national culture alone has a great impact on the culture of organisations. Therefore, this important factor (national culture) is taken separately. This amendment reflects the importance national culture plays in the culture of an organisation (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 1984; Harvey, 1997; Brooks, 1999).
- In the explanation of information and control systems, Drennan has discussed computerised information and control systems. Hence the word "computerised" is also included in the heading to make it more meaningful (see Figure 4.4).
- Drennan has described his twelve factors as "most important factors that influence organisational culture." Whilst these may be recognised as the most important factors at present, what about the future? If these are the most important factors then there is no room for any other factor(s) over time, whereas it is possible that others may emerge in the future. Therefore, the word "most" is omitted from any reference to Drennan hereafter, and the word "that" is replaced by "found to" to enable future factors to emerge.

Based on the changes, an overview of the factors that have been found to influence organisational culture is given in Figure 3.14.

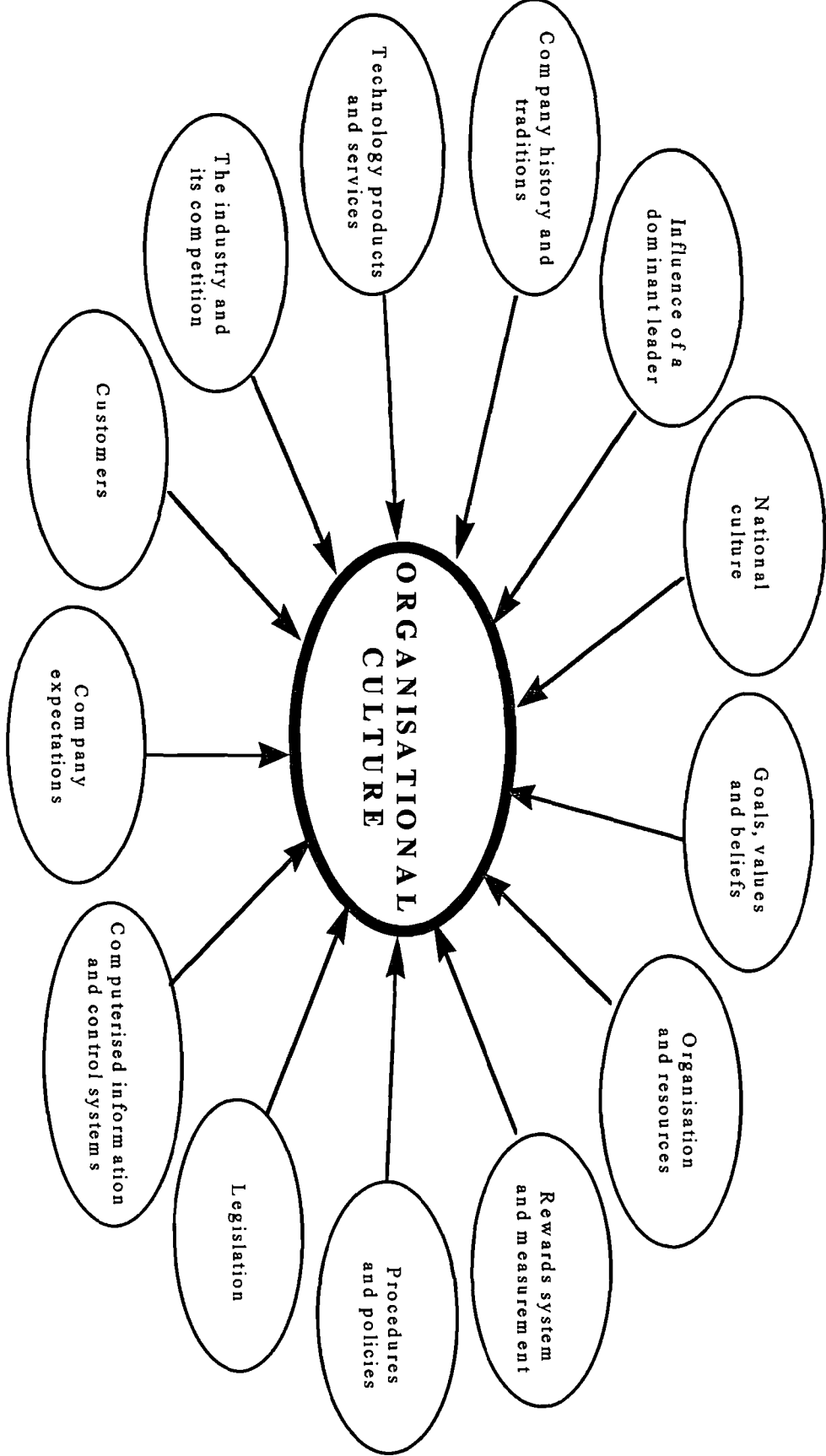


Figure 3.14 An overview of the factors found to influence organisational culture

3.8 SISP and Organisational Culture.

The importance of organisational culture stems from its direct impact on such issues as individuals' expectations and perceptions, and group behaviour and leader characteristics (Sethi and Lederer, 1997).

Organisational culture plays an important role in IS success (Sethi and Lederer, 1997). (A general discussion of IS success and failure was included in Subsection 2.2.2.) The culture in some organisations would either render the use of IS impossible or render their results of little or no value (Remenyi, 1991). For example, this may be the case in a high-power distance culture (see Subsection 3.4.2) where individuals with status or position in the hierarchy yield considerable power, and where lines of authority and responsibility are clearly defined. When an application introduces new methods and procedures, these relationships (between organisational personnel) are often challenged (Shore and Venkatachalam, 1996). Applications which impose new work practices and require independent actions may directly conflict with the existing culture. As a result, subordinates may be as culturally unprepared to accept new authority relationships as their bosses. In a high-uncertainty avoidance culture (see Subsection 3.4.2), employees may show concern over the uncertainty of new methods and procedures associated with new applications, and particularly resist the abandonment of systems with which they are familiar and feel secure.

The above paragraph highlights that the process of IS development and implementation must be supported by the organisational culture in which the IS are to be embedded, so that they have a greater chance of success. It follows that the same is true for all other processes in an organisation, such as SISP which is a process which helps for the planning of effective IS (see Chapter 2). Hence, SISP should be aligned with organisational culture in order that it has a greater chance of resulting in a successful outcome.

However, the literature on strategic uses of IS suggests that a very important step for the successful implementation of IS is an appointment of a champion for the new IS (Beath,

1996). A champion is a manager at a high level in the organisation who takes on the responsibility for guiding the IS project through the development process (including alignment of IS with organisational culture). He is a person who establishes organisational innovation regardless of having requisite authority or resources (Beath, 1996). In fact, the role of champion also supports the alignment of SISP with organisational culture.

3.9 Summary

This chapter has provided an overview of organisational culture and its importance. There are many examples where organisational cultures were changed for the effectiveness of the organisation. Even a positive culture which is coherent with business goals, can become dysfunctional if ignored. Indeed, organisational culture has a strong impact on the success of IS, SISP and the organisation. As an organisation changes and expands, its culture needs to adapt so as to meet new realities if it is inadequate to meet present or future needs. Hence, it is important to know what type of culture exists in an organisation so that the management can change or improve the culture according to its needs.

Classification is a powerful method of understanding culture and identifying associated issues, such as, misalignment. There are several approaches (for example, the Harrison and Handy typology, the Hofstede dimensions of national culture, the Deal and Kennedy typology, the Quinn and McGrath typology, the Sethia and Von Glinow typology, the Sholz typology and the Wiener typology) for the classification of organisational culture, but each one classifies organisational culture from a different perspective (such as, national culture, rewards systems, values, evolution over time, risk/feedback). Hence, it is difficult to portray a sufficiently complete overall picture of an organisational culture with the use of a single approach. The cultural web and Drennan's factors that influence organisational culture are also described in the chapter. The next chapter, Chapter 4, provides a summary of the literature review (Chapters 2 and 3) and establishes the link between the literature and this research.

Chapter Four

REQUIREMENTS FOR CULTURALLY SENSITIVE SISP METHODOLOGIES AND AN INITIAL CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK PROPOSED

4.1 Introduction

Chapters 2 and 3 have reviewed the pertinent literature regarding SISP, SISP methodologies, and organisational culture. During these chapters, several issues have been highlighted, which in combination lead this author to propose that culturally-sensitive SISP methodologies are important for IS success within organisations. No one else has looked at the issue of cultural sensitivity of SISP methodologies, hence paving the way for this research. The purpose of Section 4.2 is to draw together the issues raised in Chapters 2 and 3 to form a coherent argument to support this proposition.

A framework needs to be developed to enable assessment of the cultural-sensitivity of SISP methodologies. This thesis proposes such an initial conceptual framework, which is derived from the literature review in Chapters 2 and 3, which is then instantiated and tested with an example SISP methodology, Critical Success Factor (CSF) and an example organisational environment, National Bank of Pakistan (NBP). NBP is specially selected because of its availability to the researcher and its cultural richness, and the CSF methodology is selected because of its use with great success by a growing number of organisations. The derivation of the initial conceptual framework forms the subject of Section 4.3. Validation of the initial conceptual framework is described in Subsection 4.3.1. The preparation of a set of SISP methodology factors for an intermediate representation of a SISP methodology is discussed in Subsection 4.3.2. Section 4.4 provides an introduction and rationale for selection of the case organisation, NBP and the

case methodology, CSF. The chapter finishes with a brief summary and some concluding remarks.

4.2 The Argument for Culturally-Sensitive SISP Methodologies

Section 2.2 discussed the importance of information for the well being of an organisation. It stated that information is at least as much an asset as other assets (such as money, materials, buildings, equipment and staff) of an organisation, and that real competitive advantage can come from a company's use of information. To take advantage of the opportunities afforded by information, an organisation must gather, filter, store and use vast quantities of information better than its rival organisations. An effective IS can help in this regard (Duffy and Assad, 1989; Stowell and West, 1994). There are hundreds or even thousands of organisations that have obtained competitive advantage through the use of their IS (Butler Cox, 1987). Subsection 2.2.2 provided examples of several companies, which have improved their market position via the use of IS. Hence, effective IS are important for the effectiveness of organisations.

The planning of IS in an organisation must be consistent with its organisational objectives. SISP is a process which helps an organisation identify an IS strategy, which is in line with its organisational strategy and mission (Fidler and Rogerson, 1996). SISP can therefore help organisations to pinpoint and develop effective IS.

A process in an organisation cannot be successful unless it is supported by its working environment: resources will be wasted if organisational processes are unsupported (Lederer and Sethi, 1988; Raghunathn and King, 1988; Sethi and Lederer, 1997). SISP methodologies, such as the generalised CSF and proprietary offerings from consultancies such as KPMG and Andersen Consulting, are available to support the SISP process (Remenyi, 1991; Rogerson and Fidler, 1994). A SISP process, supported by a SISP methodology, needs to be aligned with organisational culture. Organisational and national cultures influence the way employees work, make decisions, and take actions. They play an important role in the success of both IS and organisations (see Section 3.3). For

instance, organisational culture must be taken into account while planning for and implementing IS, otherwise there is a possibility that IS may not be successful due to incompatibility with organisational culture (refer to the last two paragraphs of Subsection 2.2.2). In other words, there is a need for cultural alignment between IS and organisational culture. It follows that the same is true for the SISP methodologies that support the development of effective IS within organisations.

As already stated, there is a difference between organisational culture and organisational context (see last paragraph on page 28). This research focuses on organisational culture which refers to behaviour, attitudes and beliefs of the employees, which leads them to think and act in a certain way (see Section 3.2). Earl (1996B) provides a framework (OFF) for the integration of IS and the organisation (see Figure 2.1). His framework consists of four strategies out of which three strategies are part of SISP activities. Figure 4.1 provides an overview regarding alignment between organisation culture, SISP and OFF.

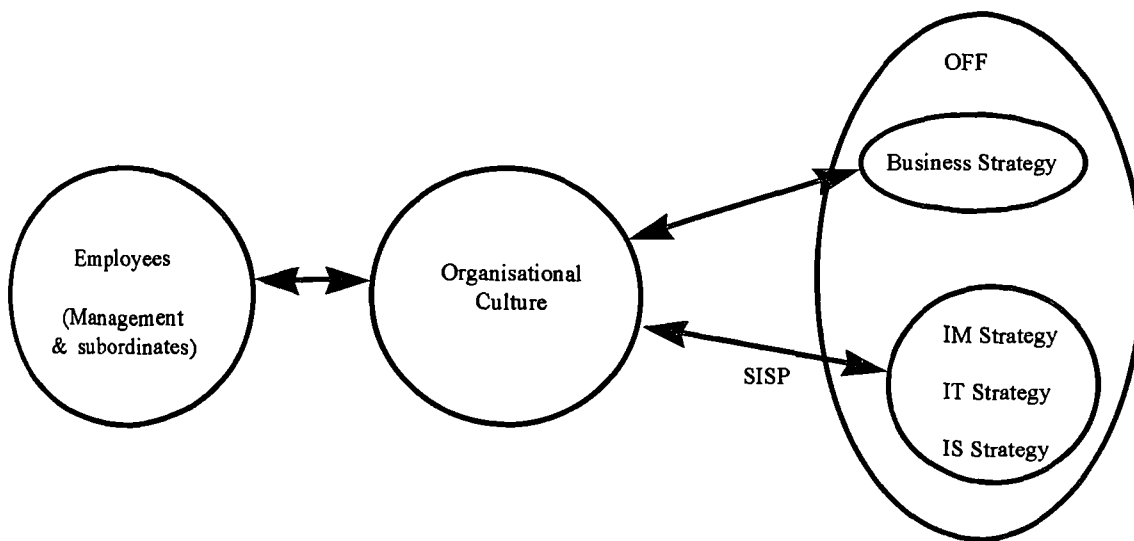


Figure 4.1 Alignment between organisational culture, business strategy and SISP

Figure 4.1 shows alignment of IM, IT and IS strategies (SISP activities) with business strategy via organisational culture. Hence, there must be an alignment between SISP and

organisational culture for the effective planning and implementation of IS. The SISP methodologies available in the market place for the support of the SISP activities have been developed in a particular socio-environment, hence their implementation in a different culture may be problematic (Hofstede, 1980). Indeed, Lybareas et al. (1993) specifically emphasises that where necessary, a SISP framework should be amended to fit specific cultural values.

As already discussed, this begs the question of how “global” software products such as Microsoft (MS) Office are so popular and appear to have global acceptance. However, if such products are analysed in detail it can be seen that the product functionality can accommodate a number of cultural perspectives. For example, there are number of features of the MS Office which are in use in low-power distance culture countries (such as USA and UK) and not in high-power distance culture countries (such as Pakistan) (see Hofstede, 1994, p.26 and p.54). A good example of this is the capability of MS Office in a network environment to support the creation of documents by a team of people. This will be used in the low-power distance but not in the high-power culture. Therefore, such products given their generic nature are not considered relevant to this research. It is the utilisation of software products (taking culture into account) that is relevant and this is covered generally in the discussions and analysis of this research.

Several organisational culture approaches are proposed by authors for the classification of organisational culture including the cultural web. However, no one of them, in its current state, is able to provide a sufficiently complete classification of organisational culture because each approach describes organisational culture from a particular perspective (see Section 3.5). Moreover, these typologies are, in their current state, unable to describe the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology, and to explore the mismatches and agreements between organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a particular methodology. Hence, from the literature review, an idea was conceived for the development of an initial conceptual framework for the use in the process of systematically describing the perception of organisational culture (by employees), by taking into account

all the recognised and important factors found to influence organisational culture but using the typologies in some way (see Sections 3.6 and 3.7). The initial conceptual framework is basically for systematically describing the organisational culture, as such, a set of SISP methodology factors was used for intermediate representation of culture accommodated by a SISP methodology and then to describe this culture via the initial conceptual framework. The preparation and validation of the initial conceptual framework, and the preparation of the set of SISP methodology factors are covered in Section 4.3. This initial conceptual framework was also used as basis for describing the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology so that organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology can be compared to highlight the mismatches and agreements between them.

4.3 Preparation of an Initial Conceptual Framework

Various typologies have been used widely to investigate organisational culture (for example, Hofstede, 1980; Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Scholz, 1987 and Handy, 1993 - see Section 3.4 for more detail of each of these). The vocabulary used in these typologies (see Figure 4.2) and the important factors found to influence organisational culture (see Sections 3.6 and 3.7) have been combined in the production of an appropriate initial conceptual framework for use in the process for systematically describing the organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology. This initial conceptual framework provides:

- ♦ An accurate and systematic description of organisational culture perception by employees of an organisation.
- ♦ The basis for the development of data collection instruments for assessing the organisational culture as perceived by employees.
- ♦ A means of comparison of organisational culture as perceived by employees of an organisation with culture accommodated by a SISP methodology.
- ♦ The basis for the development of a set of SISP methodology factors for the intermediate representation of the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology.

The first task in the development of the initial conceptual framework was to map the factors found to influence organisational culture (see Sections 3.6 and 3.7) against the 7 typologies (see Section 3.4) in order to develop a vocabulary for describing organisational culture. Initially, there was inconsistency in the vocabulary. This was overcome by an iterative review process which resulted in standardised descriptions whilst ensuring such descriptions were sufficiently explanatory. Figure 4.3 shows the various steps undertaken in the development of a consistent vocabulary. Once a consistent vocabulary was achieved, it was re-mapped onto the 7 typologies (see Appendix A). An initial conceptual framework was prepared using this consistent vocabulary along with the factors found to influence organisational culture (see Figure 4.4) which would enable, for example, cultural alignment between an organisation and a SISP methodology to be investigated.

Autocratic, democratic, power difference, influence, strong, weak, position, expertise, personality, distance, radical, conservative, caring, dynamic, stable, predictable, unpredictable, efforts, output, loyalty, quality, guidance, adherence, flexible, rigid, questioning, unquestioning, few, many, high, medium, low, dynamic, small, large, service, status, top-down, never, rigid, flexible, sufficient, insufficient, stable, ad-hoc, reactive, anticipating, exploring, creative, adaptable, team, individual, satisfying, role, job, factual, known, unknown, varying, rewards, optimising, bounded, unbounded, orientation, risk, average, effectively, ineffectively, enough, some, adaptable, foreseen, change, reason, new ideas, consult, leadership, participative, non-participative, enabling, efforts, apathy, strict adherence, constricting, long-term, short-term, cooperative, non-cooperative, loyalty, obedience, empowering, hierarchy, demanding, competence, technical, compromising, non-compromising, high-uncertainty, low-uncertainty, status quo, oppressive, appropriate, desirable, mandatory.

Figure 4.2 A subset of vocabulary describing organisational culture

A validation of the initial conceptual framework was undertaken to check its reliability to some degree (see Subsection 4.3.1). The validation of the initial conceptual framework forms the subject of next subsection.

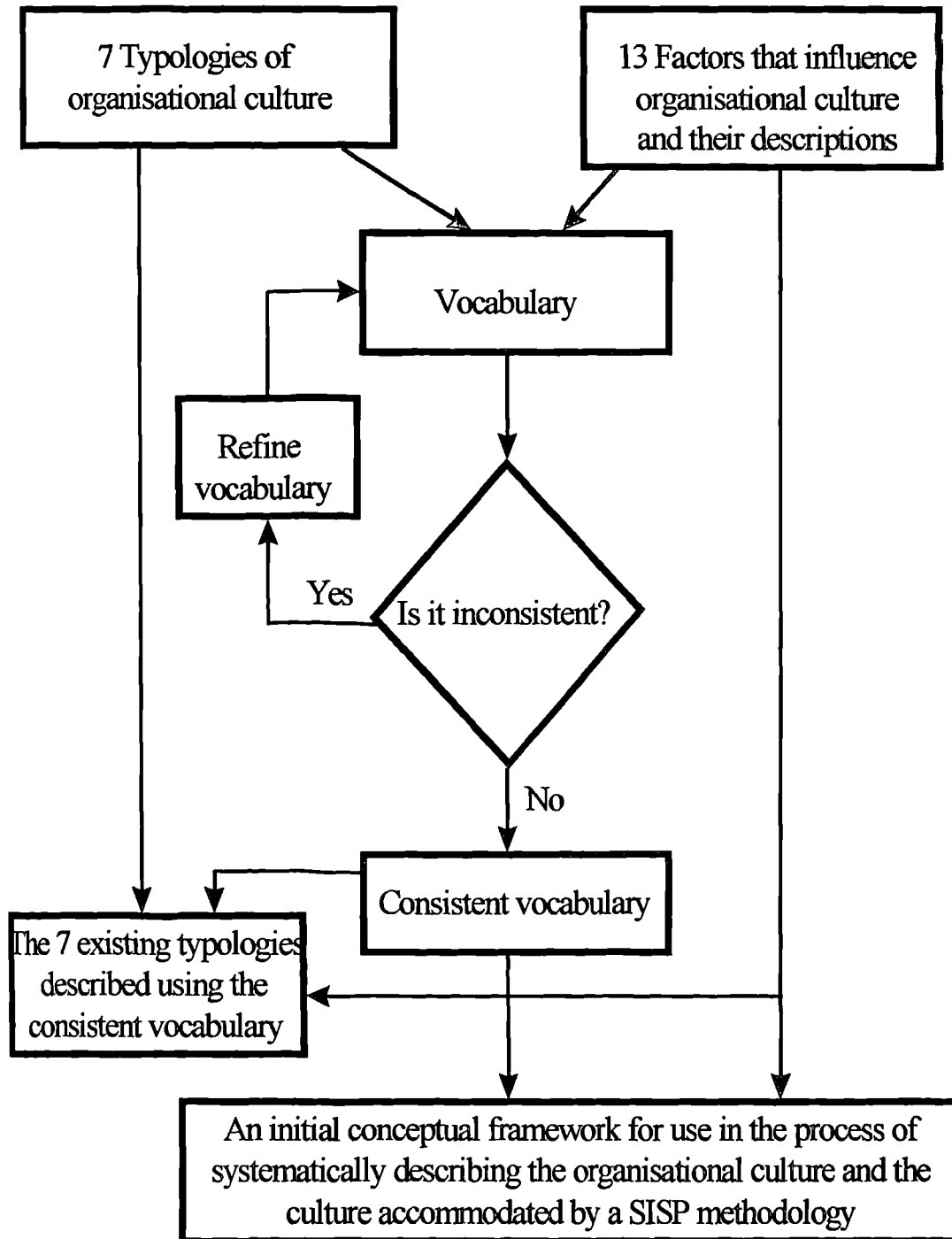


Figure 4.3 Steps in the preparation of an initial conceptual framework

Factors found to influence organisational culture	Terms
1. National culture	Autocratic → Democratic Conservative → Radical Oppressive → Caring
2. Influence of a dominant leader	Level of influence : High → Medium → Low Type of influence : Autocratic → Democratic Source of influence : Expertise, Position, Personality
3. Company history and traditions	Weak → Strong Stable → Dynamic Conservative → Radical
4. Technology, products and services	Dependence on : High → Medium → Low Line of business : Service, Production
5. The Industry and its competition	Market : Stable → Dynamic Predictable → Unpredictable
6. Customers	Potential influence of : High → Medium → Low Level of customer orientation : High → Medium → Low
7. Company expectations	Demand on employees : High → Medium → Low Nature : Stable → Dynamic Type : Efforts, Output, Loyalty, Quality
8. Computerised information and control systems	Desirable Mandatory
9. Legislation	Type : Constricting, Empowering Organisational stance : Guidance, Adherence, Strict adherence
10. Procedures and policies	Type : Constricting, Empowering Organisational stance : Guidance, Adherence, Strict adherence Employees stance : Guidance, Adherence, Strict adherence
11. Rewards system and measurement	Number : Few → Many Application : Rigid → Flexible Orientation : Customers, Quality, Role/Job, Output
12. Organisation and resources	Availability : Predictable → Unpredictable Appropriate, Sufficient
13. Goals, values and beliefs	Orientation : Team vs. Individuals or both Employee attitude : Apathy, Questioning, unquestioning type : Conservative → Radical Orientation : Customers, quality, role/job, Output

Figure 4.4 An initial conceptual framework for systematically describing the organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology

4.3.1 Validation of the Framework

The initial conceptual framework was assessed by two highly respected researchers in the field of SISP and organisations. They considered the framework to be an amalgamation of various existing typologies which are widely used for describing organisational culture. The fact that the framework is derived from existing and respected typologies provides it with some reliability.

Figure 4.5 provides a top level flow diagram of how the initial conceptual framework will be used in elevating the mismatches and agreements between an organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology.

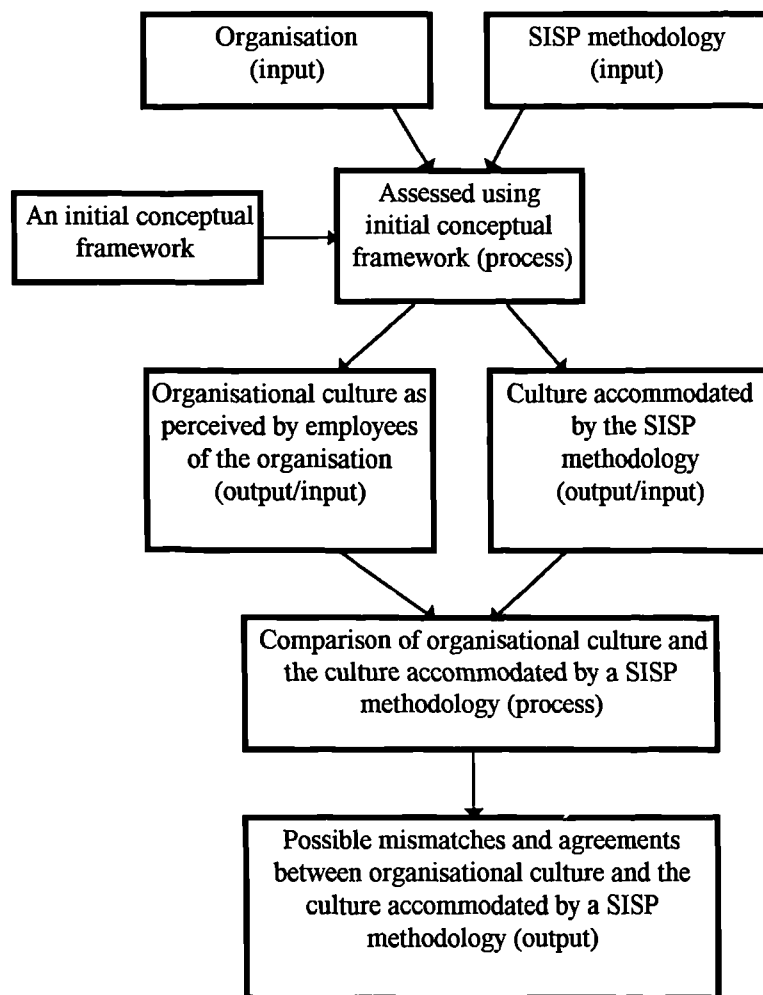


Figure 4.5 Top level flow diagram of the use of the initial conceptual framework

4.3.2 Preparation of a Set of SISP Methodology Factors for Analysing a SISP

Methodology

The analysis of a SISP methodology to assess the culture accommodated by it was a particularly difficult stage in this research. The term “culture” is usually associated with human beings: to assess it in a non-human situation was difficult to conceptualise.

In order to describe the cultural sensitivity of a SISP methodology, and to compare it with the organisational culture, there was a need to describe the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology with the same instrument used to describe organisational culture, that is, the initial conceptual framework. An intermediate representation was needed to describe the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology. However, there was no such instrument available for intermediate representation because no one has already analysed and described the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology. Hence, a set of SISP methodology factors (see Figure 4.7) was prepared and used for the analysis of the SISP methodology, to break it down into elements which could then be more easily related to the factors used in the initial conceptual framework. The set of SISP methodology factors was prepared with the help of the vocabulary used by several authors (for example, Bullen and Rockart (1981), Boynton and Zmud (1984), Martin and Leben (1989), Edwards et al. (1991), and Remenyi (1991)) in narrating the CSF methodology, a representative SISP methodology. An example of the subset of vocabulary used by several authors and its conception for the use in the set of SISP methodology factors is given in Figure 4.6.

- National culture (see Subsection 3.4.2) plays an important role in shaping the behaviours, attitudes and beliefs of individual members of a country (Tayeb, 1988). The author(s) (as member(s) of a country) may be consciously or unconsciously influenced by the national culture of the country. Hence a factor was conceived as *origin of the CSF methodology regarding culture of country of origin, culture of organisations where SISP methodology applied successfully and background of developer(s).*
- *Interviews should be conducted with all levels of managers.* It is a group process in which management should be ready for a vigorous discussion and compromised CSFs (see Subsection 2.4.1, 4th paragraph). Hence a factor was conceived as *philosophy regarding weltanschauung and mental construct* of the methodology.
- CSF methodology may be applied to the organisation as a whole or to individual departments or functions. CSFs become a vital part of the ongoing process of management. It gave an idea of *phased/iterative structure.*
- *Shank et al. (1985, p.125) state that "hold CSF interviews with each staff members".* CSF method involves a series of personal interviews, CSFs are consolidated to form a collective set of CSFs for the whole organisation, and desires emerge. It indicated *activities as participative, consultative, fact-gathering and compromising.*
- Active *involvement* of a key member of top management is solicited. A two-members team is considered to be the best arrangement for assessing the CSFs. Hence it gives an idea of participation in the *SISP team.*
- As the environmental factors of the enterprise change, CSFs of the enterprise also change. The CSF concept is being used as an aid in IS planning. It gives an idea regarding *sensitivity or applicability.*
- When the CSFs are identified, it is desirable that CSFs identified be employed immediately. Hence a factor regarding *radical or conservative change* was conceived.
- A high-quality service or product is a major CSF for all organisations. An indication of *quality assurance.*
- The CSF methodology requires relatively few *resources* indicating the *resources* requirements.
- Human resource development, improvement in quality of services or products, inventory control, acquisitions or acquiring financing, competition, availability or price of a particular raw material are the *internal* and *external focus* of CSF methodology. Which is considered another factor.
- Computers can turn CSF analysis into a control mechanism. This has given the idea of *computerised information and control systems* as *desirable/mandatory (necessary).*

Figure 4.6 A subset of vocabulary used by several authors when describing CSF methodology

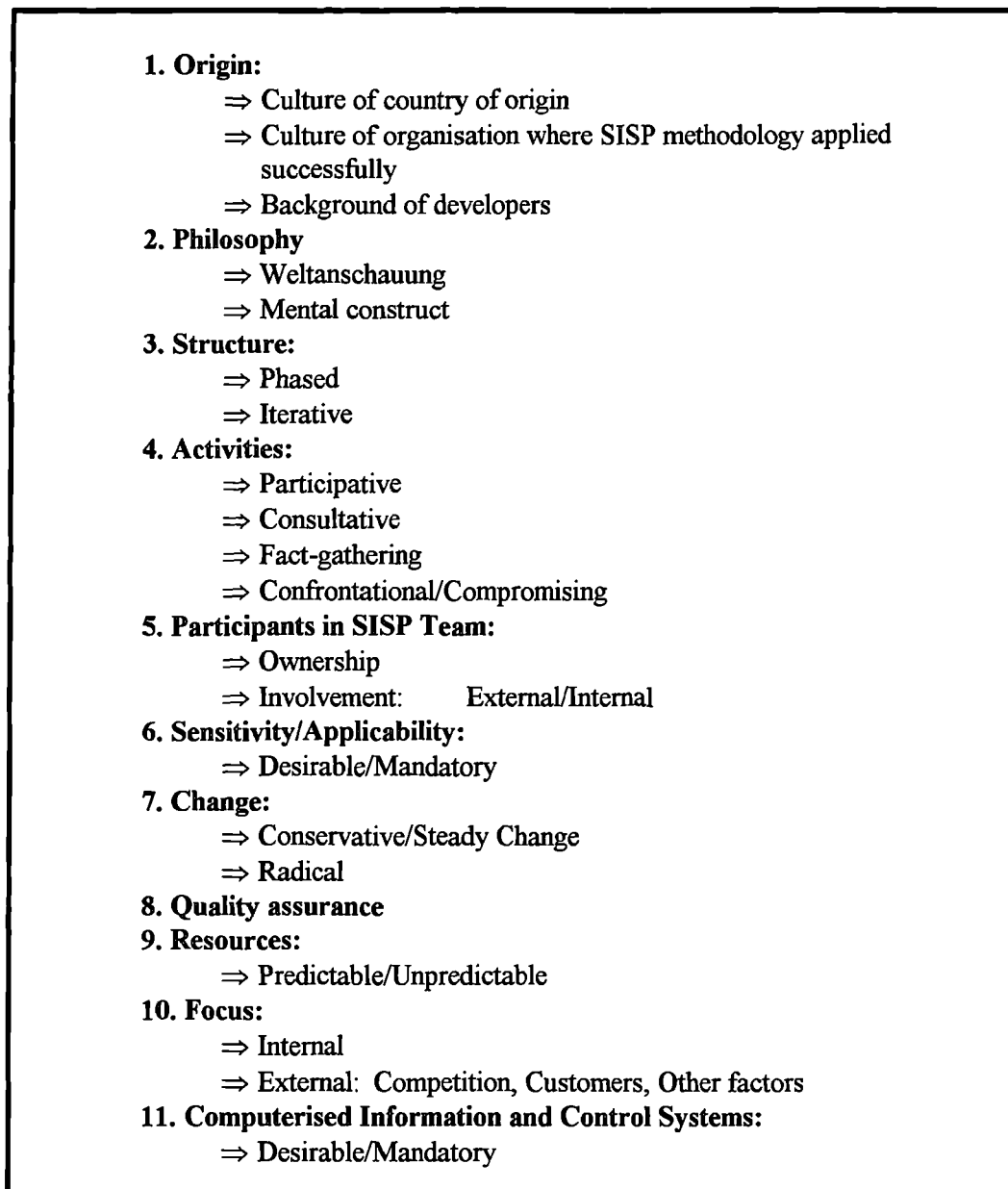


Figure 4.7 A set of SISP methodology factors for intermediate representation of the culture accommodated by the SISP methodologies

The factors used for analysis of the CSF methodology (see Figure 4.7) were related to the factors used in the initial conceptual framework (see Figure 4.4) on the basis of their representation of the factors used in the initial conceptual framework. For example, a subset of the vocabulary used in the set of SISP methodology factor origin (that is, “culture of country of origin”, “culture of organisations where SISP methodology applied

successfully”) relates to the factor “national culture” and the other aspect of the origin’s vocabulary (that is “background of developers”) relates to “influence of a dominant leader” used in the initial conceptual framework. The vocabulary used in the SISP methodology factor philosophy (that is “weltanschauung” and “mental construct” of the methodology regarding high or low-power distance among employees in an organisation) also relates to the factor “national culture” used in the initial conceptual framework. The SISP methodology factor activities (covering “participative, consultative, fact-gathering and confrontational/compromising”) relates to the factor “goals, values and beliefs” used in the initial conceptual framework. The SISP methodology factor change (that is “conservative/steady change and radical”) relates to “company history and traditions” used in the initial conceptual framework. The SISP methodology factor (“quality assurance”) relates to “rewards system and measurement” and “company expectations” used in the initial conceptual framework. The SISP methodology factor resources (that is “predictable/unpredictable”) relates to “organisation and resources” used in the initial conceptual framework.

4.4 Case Organisation and SISP Methodology Selection

This research applies the initial conceptual framework, developed in the previous section, in one organisation setting (NBP) and with regard to one SISP methodology (CSF). The reasons for the selection of NBP and the CSF methodology are given in the following two subsections respectively.

4.4.1 NBP

Pakistan is a developing country. As in other developing countries, Pakistani business is economically deficient and far behind in securing a beneficial market position. In particular, Pakistani business persons are far behind in the use of technology assisted IS in business. Even though, if Pakistani business persons want to take advantage of IS (as did by many organisations in developed countries, see Subsection 2.2.2), they may not do so effectively because IS developed in one national culture may not be successfully implemented in another national culture because the effect of national culture on IS

development highlights that cultural differences have great impact on the technical and procedural aspects of IS (Ein-Dor et al., 1993). As Shore and Venkatachalam (1996) argue that implementing IS developed in one national culture for the use in another national culture may cause problems. Not only national culture but also organisational culture is different from organisation to organisation (Fidler and Rogerson, 1996). Moreover, Lybereas et al (1993) argue that where necessary IS planning frameworks should be amended to fit with the prevailing organisational culture. To investigate the organisational culture so that an organisational culture can be compared with the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology, and to illustrate the potential usefulness of the initial conceptual framework and the approach adopted for this research, a Pakistani-based organisation was selected.

In order to ascertain the “organisational culture” profile of a Pakistani-based organisation, NBP was selected as it is one of the biggest banks in Pakistan, having 1447 branches throughout Pakistan and 27 branches outside Pakistan, 7 of which are in the UK. In the UK branches, the senior staff are seconded from Pakistan and the rest of the staff are employed from the UK. There are two types of conditions of employment; one for Pakistani staff and a separate one for UK staff. NBP was specially selected because of its availability to the researcher (the researcher being also from Pakistan) and its cultural richness. Due to its cultural richness, selecting NBP has provided an opportunity to study two types of cultures (that is, Pakistani and UK cultures) in a single organisation.

4.4.2 CSF Methodology

The CSF methodology (described previously in Subsection 2.4.1) was selected as an indicative SISP methodology due to its use with great success for IS strategy development in a wide number of organisations (Bullen and Rockart, 1981; Boynton and Zmud, 1984; Martin and Leben, 1989; Remenyi, 1991; Fidler and Rogerson, 1996; Robson, 1997; Glaister and Falshaw, 1999). The widespread popularity of the CSF methodology is due to its intrinsic conceptual simplicity and to the fact that CSF analysis requires few resources (Boynton and Zmud, 1984; Fidler and Rogerson, 1996). Moreover, it is a generic

methodology and many consulting firms (such as KPMG and Andersen Consulting) use CSF analysis as an integral part of their proprietary SISP methodologies.

4.5 Summary and Conclusions

This chapter has summarised the literature review, has highlighted the requirements for culturally sensitive SISP methodologies and has provided the justification for (1) the development of an initial conceptual framework for systematically describing the organisational culture as perceived by employees of an organisation and the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology, and (2) the development of the set of SISP methodology factors for the intermediate representation of the CSF methodology (a representative SISP methodology). The outcome of the literature review is that, where necessary, SISP methodologies should be amended to fit specific cultural values. Several typologies and the cultural web have been proposed by authors for the classification of organisational culture. However, no one of them, in its current state, is able to provide a sufficiently complete classification of organisational culture. Moreover, these existing typologies are, in their current state, unable to describe the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology and highlight the mismatches and agreements between the organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a particular methodology. This thesis serves to provide an initial conceptual framework whereby the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology can be compared with organisational culture within which the SISP methodology is to be embedded, thereby highlighting mismatches and agreements between the two.

A set of SISP methodology factors has also been developed for the intermediate representation of the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology, to break it down into elements which could then be easily related to the factors used in the initial conceptual framework.

NBP and CSF methodology were chosen as the representative organisation and SISP methodology respectively for providing some empirical evidence of the initial conceptual

framework applicability and usefulness. The research approach adopted for the data collection and analysis regarding organisational culture forms the subject of Chapter 5.

Chapter Five

RESEARCH APPROACH FOR DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS OF ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 4 has summarised the literature review, has established a link between the literature review and the research, and has presented an initial conceptual framework for the use in the process of systematically describing the organisational culture and the culture accommodated by SISP methodologies. This chapter discusses the approach which is adopted for the empirical work in this research. It includes both quantitative and qualitative methods of inquiry and analysis. A similar approach has been used by Kaplan and Duchon (1988) for IS research and is supported by Gable (1994). It is possible to integrate qualitative and quantitative methods (Maxwell et al., 1986; Strauss and Corbin, 1990; Lee, 1991), as combining them enhances both validation and context aspects of research (Bonoma, 1985; Fielding and Fielding, 1986; Kaplan and Duchon, 1988; Bryman, 1989; Easterby-Smith et al., 1991; Silverman, 1998). Collecting different kinds of data by different methods provides cross validation of data, a wider range of coverage and may result in a more complete picture of the organisation under study.

The structure of the chapter is as follows. Qualitative and quantitative methods of research are discussed in Section 5.2. This section indicates that a combination of these two methods of data collection and analysis provides a basis for cross validation of data and results. Various research methods, data collection techniques and data analysis techniques (quantitative and qualitative) are also covered in this section. Sections 5.3 to 5.5 inclusive

cover the implementation of the chosen research approach within NBP. The chapter finishes with a brief summary and some concluding remarks.

5.2 Qualitative and Quantitative Methods

According to Van Maanen (1983, p.9) “a qualitative method is an array of interpretive techniques which seek to describe, decode, translate and otherwise come to terms with the meaning of what is observed, not the frequency of occurrence.” In contrast, the term “quantitative method” refers to a process by which findings are arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification (Strauss and Corbin, 1990; Cornford and Smithson, 1996). For example, the studies of Pugh and Hickson (1976) into organisational structure and the work of Hofstede (1980) on culture adopted quantitative methods. Typically, qualitative methods exploit the context of data which enhances the value of that data. Qualitative methods usually yield large volumes of exceedingly rich data obtained from a limited number of individuals. Consequently, qualitative methods are characterised by the detailed observation and the attempt to avoid prior commitment to hypotheses formulated before gathering any data (Yin, 1994), whereas quantitative methods focus on hard data (facts) rather than values (judgements). Consequently, quantitative methods tend to measure numerical data, and mostly seek to describe and test hypotheses.

A quantitative method is strongly associated with a so-termed “positivist” perspective of the world and a qualitative method is strongly associated with a so-termed “interpretivist” perspective of the world (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991; Lee, 1991; Gable, 1994; Cornford and Smithson, 1996; Mason, 1996). The positivist perspective holds that the social world exists externally, and that its properties should be measured through objective methods, rather than through sensation, reflection or intuition (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991). It is founded on the premise that facts and values are distinct, and that scientific knowledge consists only of facts in an objective and real world. The French philosopher, Comte (1953) is an early and influential proponent of this view. The alternative, interpretive approach is a means of understanding the way others construe, conceptualise, and

understand events and concepts, and categorise them (Kaplan and Duchon, 1988). Dalton (1959) is the pioneer of this view. An overview of the philosophical stance of both positivist and interpretivist approaches is given in Figure 5.1.

	Positivist approach	Interpretivist approach
Basic beliefs:	The world is external and objective Observer is independent Science is value-free	The world is socially constructed and subjective Observer is part of what observed Science is driven by human interests
Researchers should:	Focus on facts Look for causality and fundamental laws Reduce phenomena to simplest elements Formulate hypotheses and then test them	Focus on meanings Try to understand what is happening Look at the totality of each situation Develop ideas through induction from data
Preferred methods include:	Operationalising concepts so that they can be measured Taking large samples	Using multiple methods to establish different views of phenomena Small samples investigated in depth or over time

Figure 5.1 An overview of the philosophical stance
Source: Adapted from Easterby-Smith et al. (1991)

Although positivist and interpretive approaches appear to be in opposition (see Figure 5.1) increasingly, authors and researchers, in the field of organisations, argue that one should attempt to combine these approaches because a combination of these two approaches provides a clearer picture of the investigation (Van Maanen et al., 1982; Easterby-Smith et al., 1991; Silverman, 1998). There are several practical examples where qualitative and quantitative approaches are combined. (For example, see Fielding and Fielding, 1986; Kaplan and Duchon, 1988; Gable, 1994.) This leads to the view that research approaches lie on a continuum rather than as a dichotomy.

5.2.1 Reasons for Choice of Qualitative and Quantitative Methods

Galliers, (1992), Gable (1994), and Remenyi and Williams (1995) suggest that no single research approach is universally applicable. Qualitative and quantitative methods should be viewed as complements rather than as competitors. For instance, a combination of

qualitative and quantitative methods provides a richer, contextual basis for interpreting and validating results (Van Maanen et al., 1982; Easterby-Smith et al., 1991). Moreover, the use of multiple methods, increases the robustness of results with findings strengthened through cross-validation (Kaplan and Duchon, 1988; Gable, 1994).

It appears that questionnaire-based surveys (quantitative), interviews and observation (qualitative) are very powerful and popular techniques of data collection which are used and supported by many researchers and authors (Kaplan and Duchon, 1988; Easterby-Smith et al., 1991; Gable, 1994; Preece, 1994; Yin, 1994; Brown, 1995; Rai et al., 1996). Indeed, some researchers consider questionnaire-based surveys as the most popular technique of data collection in cross-cultural research (Harrison and Mckinnon, 1999). The mix of data collection techniques used in this research are based on the view, expressed by Stowell and West (1994, p.125), that “the inability to quantify human action in all its possible combinations has persuaded researchers that measurement of human action must be qualitative and quantitative.” This is a view supported by several other authors (see for example, Lewin, 1948; Weber, 1964; Garfinkel, 1968; Schutz, 1971; Blumer, 1975; Schwartz and Jacobs, 1979; Reason and Rowan, 1981; Lincoln and Guba, 1984; Gill 1986; Brown, 1995). It was therefore decided to combine these two methods of research so that they provide a more complete picture of the organisation under study and cross validate the results.

There are a number of alternative research methods for investigation. Each of these was examined before the selection of those suitable for this research were made. Subsection 5.2.2 covers research methods, Subsections 5.2.3 and 5.2.4 assesses the principal techniques for data collection and data analysis respectively.

5.2.2 Research Methods

Several research methods are described and their reasons for inclusion or exclusion with reference to this research are given.

• Action Research

Checkland and Scholes (1990) describe action research as researcher involvement in taking purposeful action in order to change a real problem situation. On the other hand, Walsham (1995) is of the opinion that a researcher can conduct what is, in some sense, action research without any involvement. Walsham supports his opinion with the following argument. In the case of non-participant observation, employees can often be relatively frank in expressing their views, whereas in the case of participant observation, employees may be more guarded in expressing their views, unless the participant observer hides his research motives, which is considered unethical (Mumford, 1985).

Stowell and West (1994, p.128) describe action research as “a method by which knowledge about a particular situation is acquired by an individual or group through the process of interacting with that situation.” According to them, action research involves continual learning regarding the practical achievements in the problem situation and the acquisition of process knowledge concerning problem solving. They cite an earlier study of Susman and Evered (1978) on action research in support of their view.

The author's experience suggests that organisations in developing countries are not very familiar with research especially action research, which involves actions to change perceived problems. They would consider it as an interference by an outsider (the researcher). Moreover, the aims of this research were to develop an initial conceptual framework for systematically describing the organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology and an approach for the investigation of both to illustrate their potential usefulness. Therefore, the intention was not to change any perceived problem. Hence, the action research method was felt inappropriate for this research because action research implies changing practice and this was outside the scope of this research.

- **Case Study**

Yin (1993) and Yin (1994) are the two main texts about this method. Case study refers to a group of methods which includes both qualitative and quantitative techniques of data collection (Gable, 1994; Yin, 1994; Darke et al., 1998). This is mainly used in social science research to investigate areas where the research question takes the form of “how” and “why”. This method involves collecting information in order to understand a certain set of circumstances.

There are a number of reasons why case study is an appropriate method for this research.

- Case studies use a number of data collection techniques during investigation (Bryman, 1989; Gable, 1994). The intention of this research is to use a number of data collection techniques for cross validation of data.
- A case study method is appropriate where the objective is to study contemporary events, and it is not necessary to control behavioural events (Yin, 1994). The aim of this research is to ascertain the behaviour, attitudes and beliefs of the employees that contribute to organisational culture without any controlling or influencing role.
- There is a strong emphasis on the context in case study research. This form of research allows the researcher to find out about an organisation in detail (Bryman, 1989), which is essential in this research.
- A case study method is appropriate if the objective of the research is to investigate a previously unresearched subject (Yin, 1994). The objective of this research is to ascertain the organisational culture of a Pakistani organisation which has not been previously investigated.

- **Pilot Study**

A pilot study is invaluable as this can be used to refine data collection plans regarding both the contents of the data and the procedures that will be used (Rosnow and Rosenthal,

1993; Yin, 1994). Remenyi and Williams (1995) also suggest that a pilot study is helpful in order to establish whether a proposed data collection instrument and procedure will be successful in collecting data. For example, in the case of questionnaire use, a pilot study would allow some assessment of the clarity and intelligibility of the questionnaire. Such issues can be addressed before the start of the actual study. Thus, there is a clear justification for including a pilot study in this research.

5.2.3 Data Collection Techniques

Several alternative techniques of data collection were examined before the questionnaire-based survey, semi-structured interviews and passive, non-participant observation were chosen. All the techniques that were assessed are discussed below and their relative reasons for inclusion or exclusion with reference to this research are given.

- **Questionnaire-based Survey**

The questionnaire-based survey is a very popular and widely used technique of data collection (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991; Oppenheim, 1996; Harrison and Mckinnon, 1999). A survey is a technique of data collection in which data is gathered through oral or written questioning. Oral questioning is known as interviewing, written questioning is accomplished through questionnaires. Questionnaires are devices for securing answers to questions by using an appropriate form. Questionnaires typically entail several questions that have structured responses. When a questionnaire-based survey is properly employed, the resulting estimates can be extremely precise representations of whatever is being measured (Lavrakas, 1993).

In the preparation and administering of questionnaires, the following principles have been recommended by several authors for increasing response rates to questionnaire-based surveys.

- Confidentiality - the names and addresses of the respondents may not be requested in order to ensure respondents' confidentiality and to provide an assurance that any controversial data cannot be attributed (Oppenheim, 1996).
- Method of data collection - personally administered questionnaires and the collection of the completed questionnaires can ensure a higher response rate (as suggested by Preece, 1994 and Oppenheim, 1996).
- Length of questionnaire - the length of the questionnaire may be kept to a minimum (without detriment to the information gleaned) to maintain respondent's interest and willingness to answer (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991; Oppenheim, 1996).
- Closed questions - closed questions may be asked because they are quick to complete, easy to analyse and result in less ambiguity in responses (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991). Multiple options can be given for each question and the respondents could be asked to tick the category indicating the strength of agreement or disagreement with the questions.

The advantages of using the questionnaire-based survey are: the ability to discover relationships that are common in the organisation and hence to provide generalisable statements about the object of the study (Gable, 1994), the greater precision in reporting data (Lavrakas, 1993; Gonzalez, 1998), and the relative inexpense of using this technique of data collection (Remenyi and Williams, 1995). However, Gable (1994) has warned that a snap-shot of the situation at a certain time yields little information on understanding the meaning of the data. Moreover, some variables of interest may not be measurable using this technique. In addition, one of the acknowledged problems in questionnaire-based surveys is that the results may not always be truly representative. It might be due to the fact that a question is taken in a different context or deliberately a different answer is given. These drawbacks can be alleviated by combining its use with other techniques of data collection (for example, interviews and observation).

- **Interviews**

The importance of interviews is summarised by Burgess (1982, p.107): “The interview is the opportunity for the researcher to probe deeply to uncover new clues, open up new dimensions of a problem and to secure vivid, accurate and inclusive accounts that are based on personal experience.” Interviews help in understanding “how individuals construct the meaning and significance of their situations from the complex personal framework of belief and values, which they had developed in the organisation, in order to help explain and predict events in their organisation” (Easterby et al., 1991). Therefore interviews were considered appropriate for this research.

Interviews may be structured or semi-structured. Wholly structured interviewing was considered unsuitable for this research because the data produced can be flawed. Neale (1988) warns that there is a risk of interviewer influence through the nature and structure of the questioning. Moreover, structured interviews set boundaries within which respondents must answer. Hence semi-structured interviews (starting with structured questions and then picking further questions based on the answers received) were considered more suitable for this research to enrich the understanding regarding the organisational culture and to cross-validate the questionnaire-based survey.

- **Observation**

The observation techniques of data gathering involves looking at what is going on - watching and listening. Good observers are alert and can pick up significant events from the working and behaviours of subjects. The major advantage of observation is that the researcher directly observes events rather than relying on the respondents' memory or truthfulness (Bourque and Clark, 1994). Observation may be participative or non-participative. In the case of participative observation, the researcher will be perceived as having a direct personal stake (Walsham, 1995). Moreover, employees can be relatively less frank in expressing their views. It was for this last reason that participative observation was considered unsuitable for this research. However, non-participant observation was considered suitable for this research. The merit of non-participant observation is that the

researcher is not seen as having a direct personal stake in the various interpretations and outcomes, and should allow employees at NBP to be more frank. The passive role was also adopted by Tagg (1996) for her doctoral study.

- **Diary**

Diary technique involves asking respondents to keep a record of events at the time they occur (Rosnow and Rosenthal, 1993). This technique of data collection was considered inappropriate for this research because the researcher himself would not be involved or have a control on the process of recording the data. The researcher has to depend on the diarists (employees in NBP). Thus, there was a great probability that insufficient detail would be provided by NBP employees.

5.2.4 Data Analysis Techniques

The following paragraphs provide some insight into the ways in which data collected can be analysed.

- **Quantitative Techniques**

Various statistical analysis tests can be performed for quantitative data for checking the association among responses, such as odds ratios, Fisher's exact and Pearson chi-square tests (Cody and Smith, 1991; Rudas, 1998). In quantitative analysis, relationships among variables are often more interesting than the variables (responses) themselves. This can be best captured by "odds ratios" (Rudas, 1998), which are measures of association among variables forming the table of odds ratios (Rudas, 1998). A researcher may begin with a table of raw frequencies to be converted into odds and compared in an odds ratio. (The odds ratio cannot be calculated if one or more cells are zero or less than five (Rudas, 1998).) For small values "Fisher's exact" and "Pearson chi-square" tests are better alternatives to test for an association between responses to questions (Cody and Smith, 1991; Rudas, 1998).

Odds ratio is an estimated ratio which can be less than or greater than 1, irrespective of whether or not the odds themselves are less than or greater than 1. The odds measure the strength or preference in the respective categories, and the ratio compares these strengths. For example, if the odds ratio is equal to 1, there is said to be no association between the variables because, in this case, the two odds are equal. The further from 1 the value is, the stronger the association in responses (variables). In the case of Fisher's exact test, if the estimated p-value of the test is equal or less than 0.05 then there is evidence of association between responses, otherwise if the estimated p-value of the test is greater than 0.05 then there is less or no evidence of association in responses.

Due to the expected larger data set from Pakistan and the expected smaller data set from the UK (because of the small number of staff members at NBP's UK branches and the relative smaller number of UK branches), it was decided to use the odds ratios for the Pakistani data set and Fisher exact tests for the UK's data set for measuring association among responses. These quantitative analysis can be performed on a computer by using various statistical software packages such as Statistical Analysis Software (SAS) and Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). SAS was available to the researcher: hence this package was used for the quantitative analysis conducted during this research. Moreover, graphical presentation of data is more understandable as compared to text. Hence, Microsoft Excel software was used for the creation of appropriate graphs.

- **Qualitative Techniques**

There are number of qualitative techniques available for the analysis of qualitative data, for example, pattern-matching, explanation-building, time-series analysis, program logic models and Grounded Theory. Pattern-matching, explanation-building, time-series analysis and program logic models are more suitable for hypotheses tests whereas the intention of this research was to interpret reality rather than to test any hypothesis. Grounded theory was therefore considered to be the most appropriate technique for this research because it begins with an area of study, and allows what is relevant to that area to emerge: it does not begin with a theory and then attempt to prove it.

- **Grounded Theory**

The grounded theory method was originally developed by Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss in the 1960s during a study of dyeing (Glaser and Strauss, 1967). Later, a modified concept of grounded theory was produced by Strauss and Corbin (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Strauss and Corbin (1990 p.23) state that “A grounded theory is one that is inductively derived from the study of the phenomenon it represents.” It is a sociological research method, which is an inductive, theory discovering methodology that allows the researcher to develop a theoretical account of the general features of a topic while simultaneously grounding the theory in empirical observations or data (Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Strauss and Corbin, 1994).

Grounded theory consists of three major types of coding: open, axial and selective (Strauss and Corbin, 1990; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Strauss and Corbin (1990) and Strauss and Corbin, (1998) state that open coding breaks down, examines, compares, conceptualises and categorises the data; axial coding is a process of relating sub-categories to a bigger category; and selective coding is the process of selecting the core category and systematically relating it to the existing category hierarchies, verifying relationships, and of filling in categories that need further elaboration and development. These three types of coding are described further in turn below.

- **Open Coding**

The first step in open coding is to conceptualize and label the events which are significant to the research. No detailed guidelines are given in grounded theory to handle this situation (Turner, 1981). However, Turner (1981) does provide some guidelines which are useful for starting grounded theory analysis. Turner describes the following stages. The first stage in open coding is to label the events that are significant to the research. This is done by numbering each paragraph in the transcripts and examining the data (paragraph by paragraph) for concepts that describe the events discussed. When a concept has been identified it is noted down on a card together with the paragraph number. Further cards may be needed which refer to other potentially important events in the paragraph.

- **Axial Coding**

Open coding splits data and allows the researcher to identify some categories (Strauss and Corbin, 1990; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). Axial coding puts data back together in new ways by making connections between a category and the sub-categories (Strauss and Corbin, 1990; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). In essence, sub-categories too are categories, but because these are related to a category in some form of relationship, hence the prefix “sub” is added. In axial coding connections are made between categories. These connections are made through the paradigm model as shown in Figure 5.2.

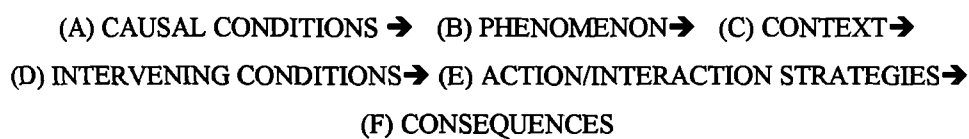


Figure 5.2 Paradigm model in Grounded Theory
Source: Adopted from Strauss and Corbin (1990).

The terms used in the paradigm model are defined in turn below.

- Causal conditions: events that lead to the occurrence of a phenomenon.
- Phenomenon: the central idea about which a set of actions/interactions are directed or related.
- Context: the particular set of circumstances within which the action/interactional strategies are taken.
- Intervening conditions: the structural conditions that affect the action/interactional strategies that are relevant to the phenomenon.
- Action/interaction: strategies devised to manage and respond to a phenomenon under a specific set of perceived conditions.
- Consequences: outcomes of action and interaction.

The paradigm model indicates a central phenomenon. The phenomenon is developed in terms of the events that lead to the occurrence of the phenomenon, the circumstances under which the phenomenon occurs, the broader background environment, the actions

and interactions that are executed on the phenomenon and the consequences that result from such actions.

- **Selective Coding**

The process for the selection of the core, or central, category to which all other categories are related, is called selective coding (Strauss and Corbin, 1990; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). In Figure 5.3, subsidiary categories are linked to the core category. These links are then verified against the data which also provide opportunity for further development of categories that may be necessary. Figure 5.3 demonstrates links between different types of coding.

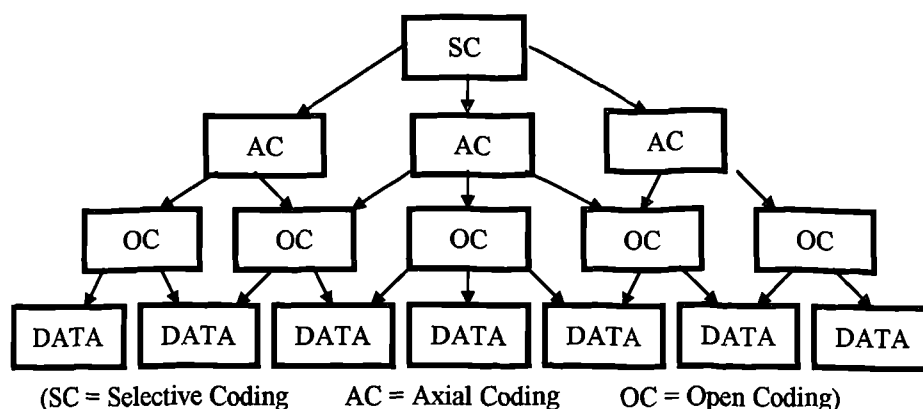


Figure 5.3 Coding and data links in Grounded Theory

There are several problems recognised by other researchers with reference to grounded theory.

- It is highly labour intensive, time consuming and expensive due to the number of hours required to carry out the data collection and analysis (Pidgeon et al., 1991). As such most timescales do not allow for full coding and theory to develop.
- Bulmer (1979) criticises Glaser and Strauss's view that the researcher should ignore the theoretical literature on an area of study and avoid a presupposition or prior conceptualisation in areas that have been well researched. Further, he argues it is difficult to follow the process of category development which appears

uncontrolled, and that there appears to be little guidance on when category development should cease.

- Burgess (1982, p.181) has stated that “the analysis in grounded theory is not reliable due to the complexity of analysis, the detail of classification and the ability to explore emergent theory”. Richards and Richards (1987) also support above view regarding complexity of analysis.
- A further problem with grounded theory is that different researchers may develop different categories, and accordingly, a different theory may emerge from the same set of data (Rennie, 1994).

All the above problems were thoroughly considered before the selection of grounded theory for this research. These problems can be alleviated in the following ways.

- It is suggested by Pidgeon et. al. (1991) that the researcher should ensure that the nature of the data to be collected is suitable and will be made available. By doing these checks the researcher will be sure that it is worth the labour. In the case of this research NBP provided the opportunity for the collection of data. The employees of NBP supplied information which was suitable for this research. Hence by ensuring that sufficient and appropriate data was available, the time required was worth the labour.
- The second problem can be overcome as the research continues. As a set of basic categories or concepts start to express much of what is important to the area, so the need to add to the set of categories lessens.
- The third problem can be resolved by viewing any “emergent” theoretical accounts as the result of a constant interplay between data and conceptualisation.
- Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Glaser (1978) argue that different analyses of data are acceptable as long as each analysis is grounded in the data.

On the whole, it appears that it is the researcher him/herself who is ultimately responsible for the success or failure of grounded theory application.

5.3 The Research Approach and a Discussion of Individual Stages

Having chosen the appropriate data collection and analysis techniques, it is now possible to define an overall approach for this research. An overview of sequential stages of research approach has already been illustrated in Figure 1.1 and is re-produced here in Figure 5.4.

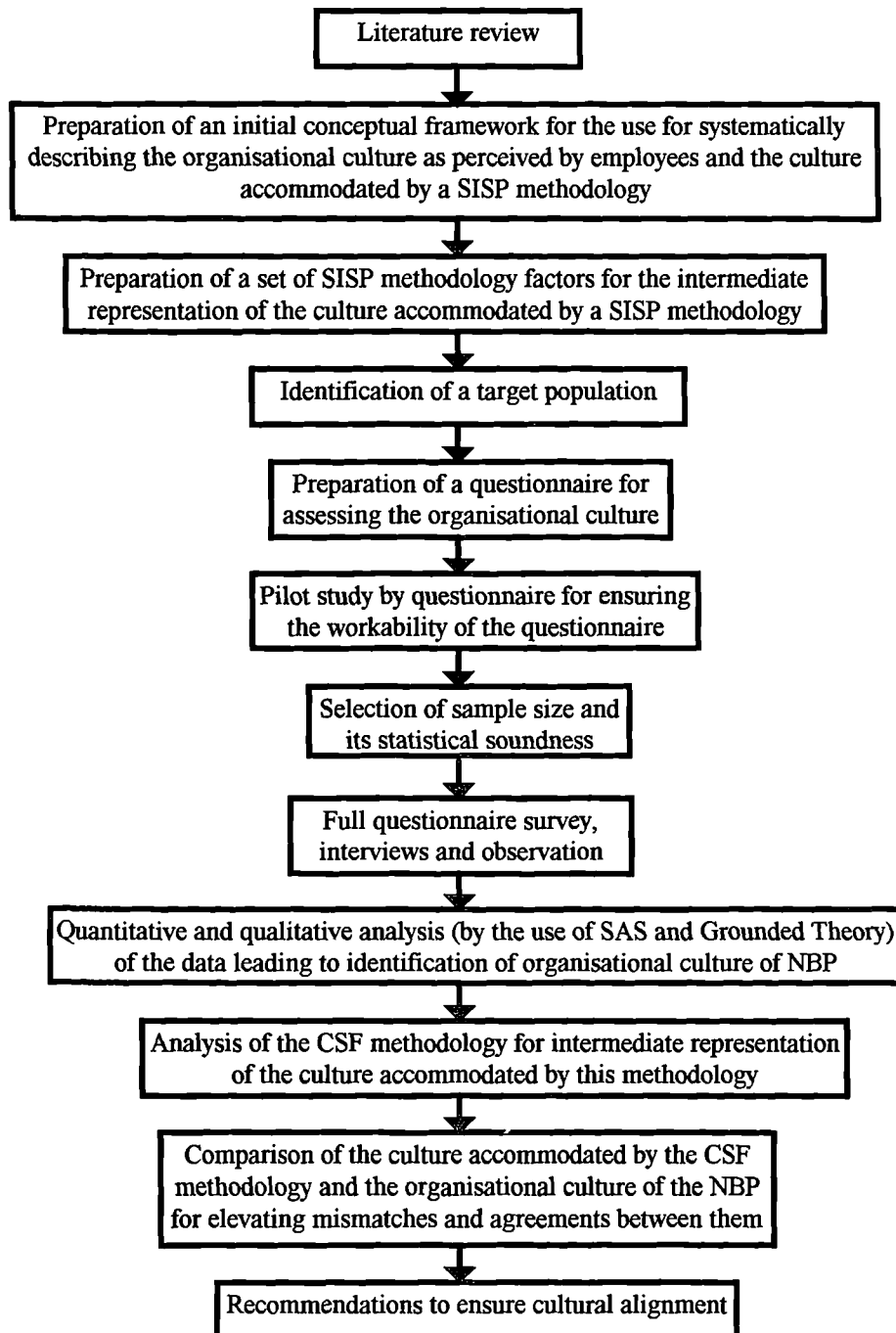


Figure 5.4 An overview of sequential stages of the research approach

The first four activities of the research approach have already been covered in Chapter 4. Details of the remaining stages are given in subsequent subsections and chapters.

5.3.1 Questionnaire Design

Based on the initial conceptual framework, a questionnaire was developed to assess the organisational culture as perceived by the employees of NBP as an example of organisational culture in Pakistan. Thirty three questions were developed to cover the 13 factors found to influence organisational culture, along with 8 questions for the UK branches and 7 questions for the Pakistani branches to check the representativeness of the data. One additional question from the UK's branches was asked to check the secondment of staff from Pakistan. The objectives of the questionnaire-based survey were as follows.

- To include a large number of respondents within time and financial constraints.
- To obtain a high response rate.
- To achieve representation of a much wider population.

Questionnaire design is an important and complex element of research (Youngman, 1984; Easterby-Smith 1991; Preece, 1994; Oppenheim, 1996). The design of the questionnaire for this study was based upon the principles (discussed in the Subsection 5.2.3) and supplemented by previous empirical research in the field of organisational culture (for example, Harrison, 1972; Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 1984; Tayeb, 1988). Closed questions were included in the questionnaire because of the principles given in Subsection 5.2.3 and because respondents' are not sufficiently familiar with replying to open questions. A set of questions was developed for each factor found to influence organisational culture (see Sections 3.6 and 3.7), so that the cultural profile of the organisation could be captured in sufficient detail. For example, 3 questions were asked to ascertain the influence of the first factor (National culture) on organisational culture. Q1, Q2 and Q3 were derived from Hofstede's work (1984, p.92, p.132 and p.173) that in high-power distance countries "employees fear to disagree with their boss", "more emotional resistance to change" and "employees expect organisations to look after them like a family" respectively. Hofstede (1984) collected the data from subsidiaries of one

large multinational business organisation in 40 countries, on the basis of which he has given four dimensions of national culture (see Subsection 3.4.2, for details). Some questions used a reverse scale. For example, for Q13 - "In NBP the customer always comes first", the "strongly agree" response gives a lowest score. Reverse scaling was accomplished by switching the anchors within a question so that a positive response becomes a low score (rather than a high score). Reverse scaling decreases the likelihood that a respondent selects a response (usually "strongly agree" or "strongly disagree") and gives that answer for every question. Some questions were projective: the respondent was not asked whether he agrees or disagrees with questions himself/herself, but the answer reflects a projection of his own feelings. For example, "My colleagues are reluctant to disagree (on any matter) with their managers." It was assumed that all the employees were aware of the culture of the organisation: if any employee was not aware of the answer to a particular question or questions then that employee had an option to tick the "don't know" answer for that question(s).

The questionnaire used Likert-type scaling which varied in range according to the degree of granularity or detail required for individual questions. Such scaling provides more detail than simple "Yes" or "No" options. Likert-type scale is defined as 1 to 5 or 1 to 7 with 1 as the "don't know". The answers to the questions for 5 options range from "strongly agree", to "agree", "disagree", "strongly disagree" and "don't know". However, some questions have seven positions running from "strongly agree", "agree", "slightly agree", "slightly disagree", "disagree", "strongly disagree" and "don't know" according to the vocabulary (terms) used in the framework. Some questions were asked directly by adding words which represent the significance of terms used in the framework. (For example, effort, output, quality of work and loyalty) The 5 and 7 options were scored as 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 and 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 respectively.

An introduction explained the purpose of the questionnaire, and instructions indicated how respondents should answer. The researcher used clear and unambiguous terminology to prevent misunderstanding, and made sure that questions followed a logical order. The

length of the questionnaire was kept to a minimum (but not at the expense of the questionnaire becoming meaningless) to maintain interest and willingness to answer. Long questionnaires often discourage respondents from giving carefully considered answers or from responding at all. The visual appearance of the questionnaire was also considered. It was clear where responses should be placed, and sufficient space was provided. The questionnaire also thanked participants for their time in completing the questionnaire. It was stated that all answers would remain confidential to this research. The names and the addresses of the respondents were not asked for so as to enhance respondents' confidence that they could answer the questions without any fear.

After the development of the questionnaire (see Appendix B), a pilot study was conducted to ensure the workability of the questionnaire design and to make necessary modifications if required (Yin, 1994).

5.3.2 Validation of Survey Questionnaire

The pilot study enabled the researcher to determine whether the questions are worded properly and clear to the respondents. Another aim of the pilot study was to ensure the workability of the questionnaire (regarding data required) and the analysis of responses. This enabled the researcher to check that the items are easily understood and that there are no obvious problems with the length, sequencing of questions, sensitive items and so on. It was also most important at that stage to see whether it was possible to analyse the data produced by the questionnaire and whether the results appeared to make any sense.

Organisations in the colonial countries were set up by the colonial rulers. Pakistan was a colony of the UK until 13th August 1947. As a consequence, the banking process in Pakistan is similar to that in the UK. Therefore although the questionnaire was prepared from a Pakistani perspective, it was considered valid to test it in a branch of a UK bank, in this case Lloyds Bank, UK, as there were sufficient parallels between the two banking organisations. Feedback was obtained from the pilot survey which involved 10 members of staff. Specifically, they found no difficulty in completing the survey questionnaire.

Instructions were easy to understand, terminology was not ambiguous, and it was clear where the responses should be placed. They specifically emphasised that very plain English was used in the questionnaire. Completing the questionnaire took on average 8-10 minutes and there was no incomplete responses. The questionnaire design was therefore considered appropriate for the investigation.

The office language of NBP is English. The entire working of NBP (customers' records/accounts, bank statements, correspondence between branches/zonal/head office) is in English. This researcher is also from Pakistan and knows the level of understanding of staff at NBP. Bearing in mind the level of understanding, plain English (which was indicated during the pilot study at Lloyds bank and also checked with one of the Pakistani students at DMU) was used in the questions. To avoid the problem of a change in the meaning and concept of terms by translation (it is always difficult to translate one language into another language without a change in real meaning), it was decided to use the questionnaire in English in the Pakistan field study.

5.3.3 Fieldwork in UK, Pakistan and Sample Size

The fieldwork consisted of two parts: fieldwork in the UK and fieldwork in Pakistan. The fieldwork in the UK was conducted during the second week of February 1998. A letter was taken from the Zonal Manager of NBP (London) to provide the necessary authority to conduct the fieldwork. Due to financial and time constraints, only 4 out of the 7 UK branches were included in the fieldwork (see Appendix C for statistical soundness of sample size). NBP has 3 categories of branches in the UK: main branch, corporate (model) branch and ordinary branch. The one main branch employs the largest number of staff members and serves as a feeding branch to others. The one model branch provides quick personal service to the customers, principally to customers with substantial deposits. The ordinary branch is for all other customers. The main branch and model branch were selected for study because of their status and location in London (capital city of the UK), and two ordinary branches were selected at random from the remaining branches. All the four branches were visited by the researcher, when questionnaires were distributed. By

being available in person the researcher was able to motivate the staff to complete the questionnaire in full and to increase the response rate. Altogether 31 questionnaires were distributed among the staff and all of them were returned after completion by the respondents (100% response rate).

The fieldwork in Pakistan was conducted from the fourth week of February to the fourth week of March 1998. A letter was taken from the Head Office of NBP to provide the necessary authority to conduct the fieldwork at a total of 100 branches in Pakistan (see Appendix C for statistical soundness of sample size). NBP classifies the whole of Pakistan into 9 regions for administrative purposes. Each region consists of urban and rural areas, and is headed by the regional chief executive. A random sample stratified according to size, location and status was used for the fieldwork in Pakistan. One main and one corporate (model) branch is located in each of the nine regions. Ordinary branches are in both urban and rural areas of the country. All the 9 main and 9 corporate branches were included in the fieldwork due to the size and location of these branches. The remaining 82 branches (41 urban and 41 rural) were selected at random from the ordinary branches. In total, 18 main and corporate branches, and 32 of the ordinary branches (16 urban and 16 rural), were visited by the researcher for questionnaire distribution and completion of the questionnaire. Pakistan is a developing country and its postal system is highly unreliable. That was also the reason for visiting 50 branches personally; but due to time and financial constraints the questionnaires were dispatched by post to the remaining 50 branches.

- **Interviews**

After receiving the responses from NBP staff on the questionnaire survey, semi-structured interviews were conducted at 6 branches (the model branch and one ordinary branch in the UK, and at one main, one corporate and 2 ordinary branches in Pakistan) to investigate further the organisational culture of NBP. All managers (each branch only had one manager) and one subordinate staff member (at random) were interviewed at each of these branches. The interview of each person took on average one hour. The objectives of interviews were as follows.

- To cross validate and complement the questionnaire-based survey.
- To enrich understanding.
- To provide a means of interaction for further explanation or clarification.

The semi-structured interviews (starting with structured questions keeping in mind the replies to the questionnaire-based survey and then picking further questions based on the answers received) were conducted to cross validate and complement the questionnaire-based survey. They allowed for interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee, so that where there was any ambiguity or misunderstanding, each party could provide further explanation or clarification. Two follow-up interview sessions were conducted at the UK branches. (Pakistani branches were not included in follow-up sessions because of financial and time constraints.) These later sessions were conducted according to the views of Strauss and Corbin (1990, p.192) that “discrimination sampling often continues right into the writing stage and sometimes a researcher has to collect additional data at that time”. All participants were assured of confidentiality.

• Observation

The researcher visited 2 branches of NBP in the UK and 4 branches of NBP in Pakistan as a passive, non-participant observer to gain insight into the atmosphere prevailing in these branches. (See Subsection 5.2.3, observation, for justification of non-participative observation.) Observation is time consuming and because of time constraints, such observations could be made in only a few branches. The objectives of the observation sessions were as follows.

1. To observe work directly rather than relying on respondents’ memory or truthfulness. During observation the following elements of behaviour were watched and listened for, and a holistic description of events was recorded.

a) Tone of staff with boss and customers:	pitch	loudness
b) Face impression:	smiling	angry
c) Language:	aggressive	polite
d) Response time:	quick	slow

- e) Time devoted to listen to a customer: a very little fair
2. To compare the findings with the quantitative technique (questionnaire-based survey) as a means of cross checking. For example, the congruence of data from interviews and observation would strengthen the confidence in the results of the questionnaire-based survey (see Section 7.4, for full details of the validation of data).

In order to satisfy the aims of the research, both quantitative and qualitative analysis were performed.

5.4 Quantitative Analysis

Odds ratio and Fisher's exact tests were performed for checking the association among responses (see Subsection 5.2.4 for detail). The mean score for each question was also calculated to obtain the overall result (see Chapter 6 for quantitative analysis).

5.5 Qualitative Analysis

The qualitative data was analysed using grounded theory developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and modified by Strauss and Corbin (1990). The Strauss and Corbin (1990) and Strauss and Corbin (1998) approach was applied in this analysis as it offers systematic techniques and procedures of analysis (see Subsection 5.2.4, for details of grounded theory).

- **Coding Procedures**

- ⇒ **Open coding**

The concept cards were developed from the qualitative data (see Appendix D) during open coding (see Figure 5.5 for an example of a concept card). The example used in Figure 5.5 is taken from the data collected in this research. More samples of open coding concept cards developed from this research can be found in Appendix E. The results of open coding in this research are discussed in detail in Chapter 7.

Location in data	Card Number	Label
	Card 22	Autocracy
	para 62	managers do not like questioning
	para 64	manager thinks he has authority to order
	para 90	managers' behaviour is authoritarian
	para 154	employees obey every order of manager without questioning
	para 211	managers' behaviour very autocratic
	para 342	managers do not like disagreement
	para 604	managers do not like disagreement
Cross references		Note of incident

Figure 5.5 NBP's open coding - example concept card

⇒ **Axial Coding**

The next step in the grounded theory is development of axial coding. Figure 5.6 illustrates how the connections are made between axial coding and the categories developed in open coding (concept cards). The example in Figure 5.6 is taken from the concept cards developed in this research. The results of axial coding for this research are discussed in detail in Chapter 7.

<u>Causal Conditions</u> Different or new work	→	<u>Phenomenon</u> Resistance to change
<u>Properties of</u> Different or new work		<u>Specific dimensions of</u> Resistance to change High resistance (4,p.18, p.20, p.162, p.168, p.256, p.376, p.420, p.474, p.638)
<u>Context</u> Feel secure / safe (4,p.258, p.422, p.476, p.640) Don't want to take risk (4,p.260)		
<u>Intervening Conditions</u> Monetary responsibility (20, p.262, p.264, p.424, p.426, p.428, p.430)		
<u>Action/Interactional Strategies</u> Daily reconciliation statement (20,p.430)		
<u>Consequences</u> Employees prefer to do routine working (4, p.18, p.20, p.162, p.166, p.256, p.376, p.420, p.422, p.476, p.638, p.640)		

(Note: numbers without p. represent card numbers whereas numbers with p. represent paragraph numbers in transcripts, see Appendix E).

Figure 5.6 NBP's axial coding - resistance to change

⇒ **Selective Coding**

Selective coding is the process of selecting the core category (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). (see Subsection 5.2.4, grounded theory for detail). The core category developed in this research is “organisational culture” (see Figure 7.5), and its derivation is explained more fully in Chapter 7.

5.6 Summary

Chapter 5 has discussed the research techniques used for collecting empirical evidence and has described the overall research approach. Briefly, the stages within the overall research approach comprise: literature review, development of the initial conceptual framework, development of a set of SISP methodology factors, preparation of the questionnaire, interviews and observation, quantitative and qualitative analysis of the data, description of the organisational culture of NBP, analysis of the CSF methodology, comparison of the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology and the organisational culture of NBP for exploring mismatches and agreements between them, and recommendations to ensure cultural alignment. Quantitative and qualitative methods and several data collection techniques are described, and justification is provided for a particular approach adopted for this research. This research incorporates both quantitative and qualitative methods. These two methods were combined in a complementary manner (for cross validation of data) in accordance with the recommendations of Fielding and Fielding (1986), Kaplan and Duchon (1988), and Easterby-Smith et al. (1991).

The research approach for the collection of data was considered highly appropriate, allowing sufficient data to be gathered for achieving the research aims (see Section 1.2). The actual results of the quantitative and qualitative analysis are discussed in Chapters 6 and 7 respectively.

Chapter Six

QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS OF DATA REGARDING NBP'S ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 has discussed the research approach to the collection and analysis of data which is employed for assessing the organisational culture of a Pakistani-based organisation, National Bank of Pakistan (NBP), as perceived by its employees. This chapter presents the quantitative analysis and interpretation of the data collected through the questionnaire-based survey employed. The qualitative analysis and interpretation of the data collected through the interviews and observations (to enrich understanding and the cross validation of data) is presented in Chapter 7. The analysis aims to identify the organisational culture as perceived by employees of NBP.

This chapter has the following structure. The analysis of the questionnaire data is described in Section 6.2. The findings of the questionnaire data are discussed in Section 6.3. The association of responses within factors found to influence organisational culture of NBP are also part of this section. The association of responses between factors is discussed in Section 6.4. Section 6.5 provides respondents' demographic information. Finally, a summary of the chapter and some concluding remarks are provided in Section 6.6.

6.2 Analysis

Prior to analysis, the data was examined and cleaned. The 528 completed questionnaires from 79 branches (79% of sample size) of NBP in Pakistan and the 31 completed

questionnaires from 4 branches (100% of sample size) of NBP in the UK were analysed. Completed questionnaires of 21 branches from Pakistan were lost during the transition from Pakistan to the UK by post. However, the sample received is still an impressive data set compared with typical surveys of this kind. 97% of returned questionnaires were completed fully, the remainder having one or more responses missing. These incomplete questionnaires were also included in the analysis by importing mean scores for the missing items. It was recognised that whilst a mean score may not truly reflect the views of the respondents, such a score would enable their remaining responses to be considered and, whilst it might influence the patterns of perceived similarity, it would not influence the determination of strong perceptual differences.

6.3 Findings

The findings of the study were logically grouped in accordance with the factors found to influence organisational culture and used in the initial conceptual framework (see Figure 4.3). For the purpose of creating 2x2 tables for the odds ratio test (see Subsection 5.2.4 for detail), the response options “agree” and “strongly agree”, and “disagree” and “strongly disagree”, were grouped into “agree” and “disagree” groups. The “Don’t know” option was ignored at this stage and analysed later on. Association and disassociation of responses within pairs in a category (factor) were tested with odds ratios. Association of responses between the categories (factors) was also assessed.

The data set collected from the branches in the UK was very small because of the small number of staff at the branches of NBP in the UK and the small number of branches in the UK. Hence, one or more of the observed cells’ values (frequencies) were less than five. Fisher’s exact test (see Subsection 5.2.4 for detail) was therefore applied, to assess the association within and between factors regarding the responses from the UK branches of NBP. Because the data from the UK were very small, they were not discussed for the questions where they were insignificant. A set of questions (see Appendix B) was asked for each factor used in the initial conceptual framework in order to ascertain NBP’s

organisational culture in sufficient detail. The questions related to each factor are analysed in turn in the subsequent subsections.

6.3.1 National Culture

The three questions used to assess the influence of national culture on the organisational culture of NBP covered three aspects: autocratic to democratic, conservative to radical, and oppressive to caring culture. The questions and an analysis of responses are given in Figure 6.1.

Q 1. My colleagues are reluctant to disagree with their boss.

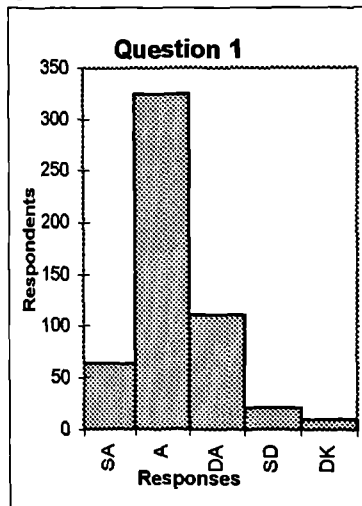


Figure 6.1a Responses to Q1 (Pakistani (Pak) data)

Q 2. I would generally like to do something I am used to.

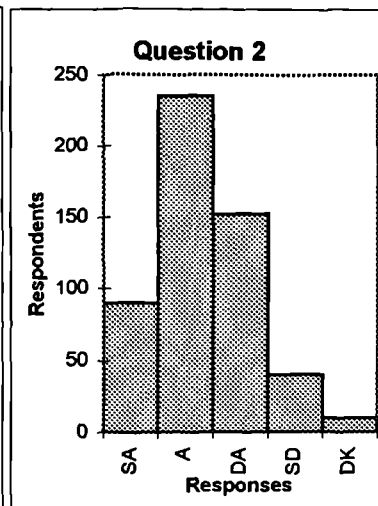


Figure 6.1b Responses to Q2 (Pak data)

Q 3. The NBP takes care of all its employees.

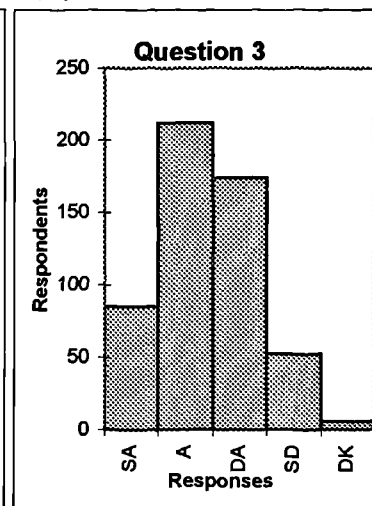


Figure 6.1c Responses to Q3 (Pak data)

Within this figure and for rest of the graphical figures in this chapter, the following abbreviations are used.

SA	Strongly agree	SD	Strongly disagree
A	Agree	DA	Disagree
DK	Don't know		

(Note that for some questions, in addition to the above abbreviations, SLA (Slightly agree) and SLD (Slightly disagree) are also used.)

The estimated odds ratio of Q1 and Q2 is 1.646 which is greater than 1.0 (see Table 6.1). It is estimated that a respondent who agrees with Q1, is 1.646 times more likely to agree with Q2 compared to a person who disagrees with Q1. The 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio (1.097, 2.470) does not include 1.0 hence there is evidence that responses to Q1 and Q2 are associated. The survey results show that 73.30% of the respondents to Q1 are reluctant to disagree with their boss (see Table 6.2). This represents a high-power distance culture as mentioned by Hofstede (1980, p.119) in high-power distance “employees fear to disagree with their boss”. As many as 61.74% of the respondents to Q2 generally prefer to do something they are used to rather than something that is different or new (see Table 6.2). People get upset if they think their routine is going to be disturbed (Drennan, 1992). This finding supports the earlier study of Hofstede (1980, p.176) that in high-uncertainty avoidance culture there is “more emotional resistance to change”.

The estimated odds ratio of Q1 and Q3 is 0.884 being less than 1.0 (see Table 6.1). It is estimated that a respondent who agrees with Q1, is 0.884 times less likely to agree with Q3 compared to a person who disagrees with Q1. The 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio (0.589, 1.327) includes 1.0 hence there is no evidence that responses to Q1 and Q3 are associated. However, the survey showed that 56.25% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with Q3 that NBP takes care of all its employees (see Table 6.2). According to the finding of Hofstede (1980, p.217) “in more collectivist societies, there is greater emotional dependence of members on their organisations; in a society in equilibrium, the organisations should in return assume a broad responsibility for their members.” Q3 shows that there is a caring culture in the NBP.

The association of responses in Q2 and Q3 is also checked. The estimated odds ratio of Q2 and Q3 is 0.795 being less than 1.0 (see Table 6.1). It is estimated that a respondent who agrees with Q2, is 0.795 times less likely to agree with Q3 compared to a person who disagrees with Q2. The 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio (0.553, 1.144) includes

1.0 hence there is no evidence that responses to Q2 and Q3 are associated. (see Table 6.1 for odds ratio and confidence intervals).

Factors	Questions	Odds Ratio	Confidence Intervals
National Culture	Q1 by Q2	1.646	1.097, 2.470
-do-	Q1 by Q3	0.884	0.589, 1.327*
-do-	Q2 by Q3	0.795	0.553, 1.144*
Influence of a Dominant Leader	Q4 by Q5	2.654	1.588, 4.435
-do-	Q4 by Q6	2.547	1.548, 4.193
-do-	Q5 by Q6	2.510	1.689, 3.731
Company History and Traditions	Q7 by Q8	0.614	0.335, 1.123*
-do-	Q7 by Q9	0.838	0.415, 1.694*
-do-	Q8 by Q9	3.330	1.957, 5.666
The Industry and its Competition	Q11 by Q12	3.870	2.338, 6.406
Customers	Q13 by Q14	0.713	0.443, 1.149*
Company Expectations	Q15 by Q16	9.401	3.286, 23.100
-do-	Q15 by Q17	3.323	2.229, 4.955
-do-	Q16 by Q17	4.492	1.859, 10.857
Computerised Information and Control Systems	Q18 by Q19	195.611	40.538, 943.903
Procedures and Policies	Q23 by Q24	4.878	3.155, 7.542
Rewards System and Measurements	Q25 by Q26	13.256	6.642, 26.453
-do-	Q25 by Q27	2.348	1.357, 4.064
Organisation and Resources	Q28 by Q29	5.284	3.469, 8.049
Goals, Values and Beliefs	Q31 by Q32	0.358	0.230, 0.556

Note: * shows no association between responses

Table 6.1 Odds ratios and confidence intervals (Pak Data)

	Agree or s. agree %	Disagree or s. Disagree %	Don't know %
1. My colleagues are reluctant to disagree with their boss.	73.30	24.81	1.89
2. I would generally prefer to do something I am used to rather than something that is different or new.	61.74	36.36	1.89
3. The NBP takes care of all its employees.	56.25	42.61	1.14

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.2 Respondents' opinion regarding the first factor found to influence organisational culture (National culture) (Pak data)

The same three questions were asked to ascertain the influence of the national culture on the organisational culture of NBP in the UK. The questions and responses from branches of NBP in the UK are shown in Figure 6.2.

Q 1. My colleagues are reluctant to disagree with their boss.

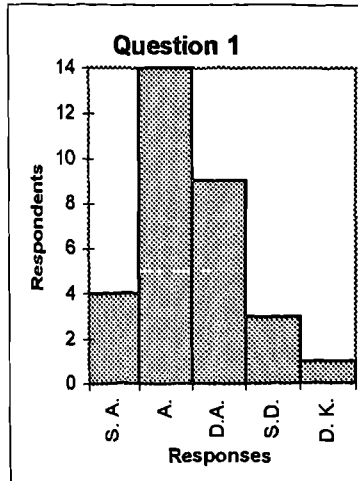


Figure 6.2a Responses to Q1 (UK data)

Q 2. I would generally like to do something I am used to.

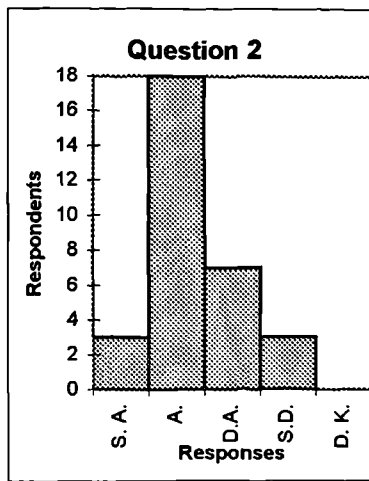


Figure 6.2b Responses to Q2 (UK data)

Q 3. The NBP takes care of all its employees.

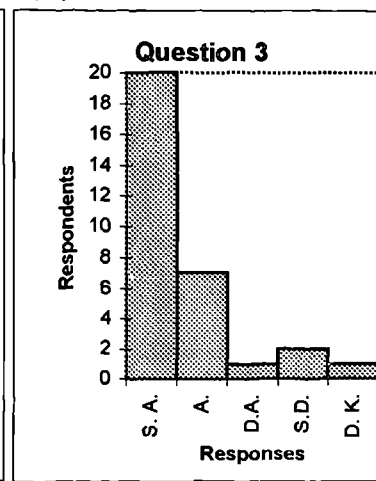


Figure 6.2c Responses to Q3 (UK data)

Fisher's exact test was performed to test for an association between the responses to Q1 and Q2. This yields a p-value of 0.000638 (see Table 6.3). Hence we have strong evidence

of an association between responses to Q1 and Q2. Respondents who agree with Q1 are more likely to agree with Q2 (in fact almost all the respondents who agree with Q1, also agree with Q2). Q1 was concerned with the influence of national culture on the organisational culture of NBP. It has already been stated that according to the findings of Hofstede (1980), the national culture of the UK is low-power distance whereas the influence of national culture on organisational culture of NBP shown by responses is high-power distance. Hence it might be concluded that NBP is a mini Pakistan in the UK and the influence of national culture in UK branches still represents Pakistani culture. However, a smaller percentage from the UK (58.06%) as compared to Pakistan (73.30%) is reluctant to disagree with their boss (see Table 6.4 for responses from the UK). It shows that there is some influence of the national culture of the UK on the organisational culture of NBP in the UK. On the other hand it is strange to see that a slightly higher percentage in the UK (67.74%, compared with 61.74% in Pakistan) generally prefer to do something they are used to rather than something that is different or new (Q2). This contradicts the previous response. It can therefore be concluded that the organisational culture of NBP in the UK comprises a mixture of both Pakistani and the UK national cultures.

The p-value of Q1 and Q3 from UK responses is 0.553 (see Table 6.3). Hence we have no evidence of an association between responses to Q1 and Q3. Respondents who agree with Q1 are less likely to agree with Q3. However, a higher percentage (87.09%) of the respondents from branches in the UK agreed or strongly agreed with Q3 that NBP takes care of all its employees (see Table 6.4).

The p-value of Q2 and Q3 is 0.251. Hence we have no evidence of an association between Q2 and Q3. Respondents who agree with Q2 are less likely to agree with Q3. (see Table 6.3 for Fisher's exact test for the UK data).

Factors	Questions	Fisher's Exact Test
National Culture	Q1 by Q2	0.000638
-do-	Q1 by Q3	0.553*
-do-	Q2 by Q3	0.251*
Influence of a Dominant Leader	Q4 by Q5	0.546*
-do-	Q4 by Q6	0.545*
-do-	Q5 by Q6	0.029
Company History and Traditions	Q7 by Q8	0.165*
-do-	Q7 by Q9	1.000*
-do-	Q8 by Q9	0.267*
The Industry and its Competition	Q11 by Q12	0.021
Customers	Q13 by Q14	No. of customers small*
Company Expectations	Q15 by Q16	0.082*
-do-	Q15 by Q17	Similar trend
-do-	Q16 by Q17	Quality of work*
Computerised Information and Control Systems	Q18 by Q19	All agree with Q18 and Q19
Procedures and Policies	Q23 by Q24	0.000159
Rewards System and Measurements	Q25 by Q26	0.00327
-do-	Q25 by Q27	0.056
Organisation and Resources	Q28 by Q29	0.080*
Goals, Values and Beliefs	Q31 by Q32	0.070*

Note: * shows no association between responses

Table 6.3 Fisher's exact test results (UK Data)

	Agree or s. agree %	Disagree or s. disagree %	Don't know %
1. My colleagues are reluctant to disagree with their boss.	58.06	38.70	3.22
2. I would generally prefer to do something I am used to rather than something that is different or new.	67.74	32.26	-
3. The NBP takes care of all its employees.	87.09	9.68	3.22

Total number of respondents = 31

Table 6.4 Respondents' opinion regarding the first factor found to influence organisational culture (National culture) (UK data)

6.3.2 Influence of a Dominant Leader

The influence of a dominant leader on the culture of NBP was ascertained by asking questions regarding level, type and source of influence. The options "position" and "personality" in the responses of Q6 were included to represent autocratic culture. The "expertise" option was included to represent democratic culture. Hence, responses to Q6 were position, personality, expertise and none of the above, to test the association of responses. The option "none of the above" is exercised by only 0.07% of the respondents. Because this percentage is less than 1%, it is ignored.

Figure 6.3 summarises the responses from Pakistan to the three questions for influence of a dominant leader. The estimated odds ratio of Q4 and Q5 is 2.654 which is greater than 1.0. It is estimated that a respondent who agrees with Q4, is 2.654 times more likely to agree with Q5 compared to a person who disagrees with Q4. The 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio (1.588, 4.435) does not include 1.0 hence there is evidence that responses to Q4 and Q5 are strongly associated. The vast majority of the respondents (82.00%) to Q4 are of the opinion that there are certain traditions which are given by a person in a management position (see Table 6.5). As we have seen in Q1, employees are reluctant to disagree with their boss and in Q8 there is less freedom to challenge traditional ways of doing things. Hence responses to Q4 represent a high-power distance

culture where traditions are given by a person in a management position and these have been followed for some time.

Q 4. In the NBP some traditions are given by a person in management position.

Q 5. If an employee took a complaint to a person higher than his/her own boss, he/she would suffer later on for doing so.

Q 6. Influence of a person in a management position is due to.

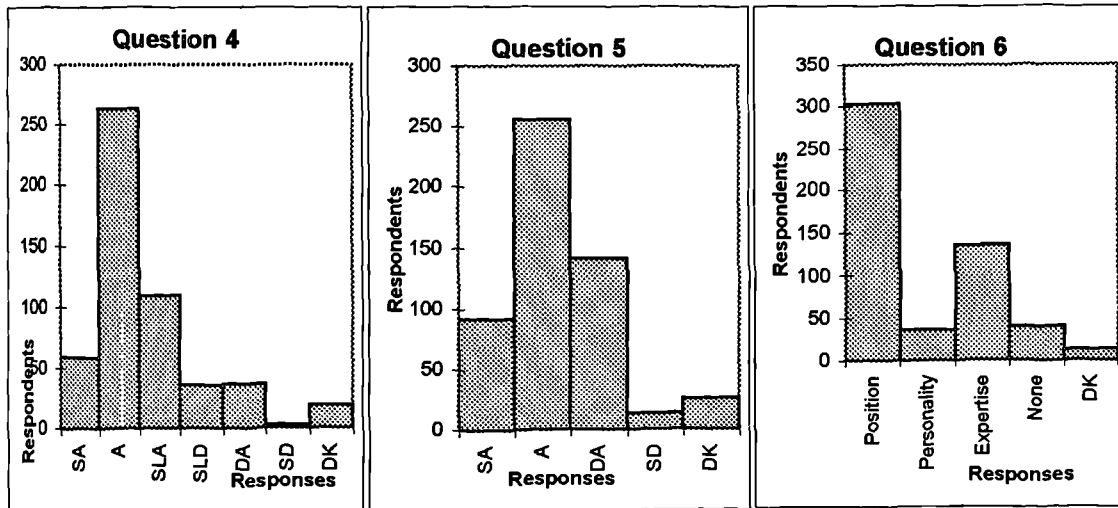


Figure 6.3a Responses to Q4
(Pak data)

Figure 6.3b Responses to Q5
(Pak data)

Figure 6.3c Responses to Q6
(Pak data)

The survey showed that 65.91% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with Q5, that if an employee took a complaint to a person higher than his or her own boss, he or she would suffer later on for having done so, such as getting no increment or promotion (see Table 6.5). Again this represents a high-power distance culture.

The estimated odds ratio of Q4 and Q6 is 2.547 which is greater than 1.0. It is estimated that a respondent who agrees with Q4, is 2.547 times more likely to choose the option "position" in Q6 compared to a person who disagrees with Q4. The 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio (1.548, 4.193) does not include 1.0 hence there is evidence that responses to Q4 and Q6 are strongly associated. As many as 64.39% of the respondents responded that the influence of a person in management position is due to his or her position or personality in the bank (see Table 6.5). This also represents a high-power distance culture where the influence of a person is due to his or her position or personality.

The estimated odds ratio of Q5 and Q6 is 2.510 which is greater than 1.0. It is estimated that a respondent who agrees with Q5, is 2.510 times more likely to choose the option “position” or “personality” in Q6 compared to a person who disagrees with Q6. The 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio (1.689, 3.731) does not include 1.0, hence there is evidence that responses to Q5 and Q6 are strongly associated. It is concluded that there is a strong association in responses to the above three questions.

	Agree or s. agree %	Disagree or s. disagree %	Don't know %
4. In the NBP some traditions are given by a person in management position.	82.00	14.39	3.60
5. If an employee took a complaint to a person higher than his/her own boss, he/she would suffer later on for doing so.	65.91	29.17	4.92
	Position or personality %	Expertise or none %	Don't know %
6. Influence of a person in a management position is due to	64.39	33.33	2.27

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.5 Respondents' opinion regarding the second factor found to influence organisational culture (Influence of a dominant leader) (Pak data)

Figure 6.4 illustrates the responses from the UK to the same three questions. The p-value of Q4 and Q5 is 0.546. Hence we have no evidence of an association between responses to Q4 and Q5. Respondents who agree with Q4 are less likely to agree with Q5. Altogether 80.64% of the respondents from the UK strongly agreed, agreed or slightly agreed with Q4 that there are certain traditions which are given by a person in a management position (see Table 6.6). This percentage is very close to the percentage of the respondents from Pakistan (82.00%) (see Table 6.5).

77.41% of the respondents from the UK to Q5 disagreed that if an employee took a complaint then he or she would suffer later on (see Table 6.6). This reply is different than from the replies from Pakistan. It shows an influence of the UK's national culture which is low-power distance.

Q 4. In the NBP some traditions are given by a person in management position.

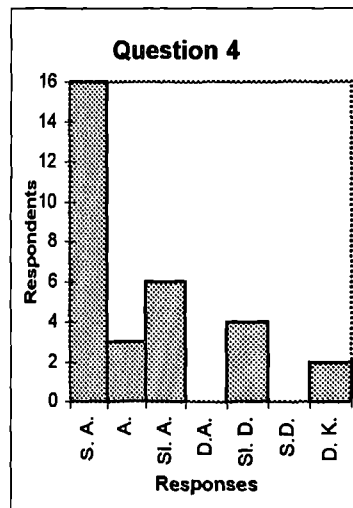


Figure 6.4a Responses to Q4 (UK data)

Q 5. If an employee took a complaint to a person higher than his/her own boss, he/she would suffer later on for doing so.

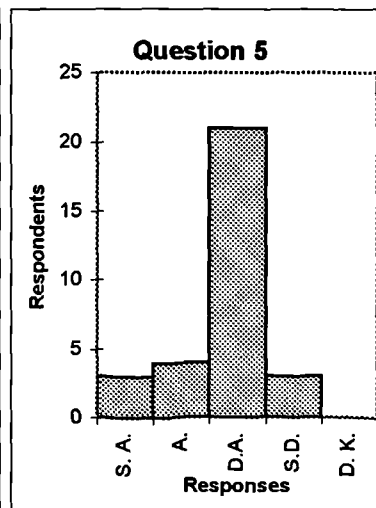


Figure 6.4b Responses to Q5 (UK data)

Q 6. Influence of a person in a management position is due to.

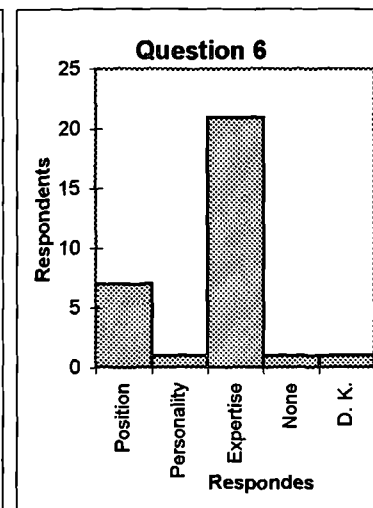


Figure 6.4c Responses to Q6 (UK data)

The “position” and “personality” options in Q6 are related to autocratic culture. The “expertise” is related to democratic culture. The p-value of Q4 and Q6 is 0.545. Hence we have no evidence of an association between responses from the UK to Q4 and Q6. Respondents who agree with Q4 are less likely to agree with option “position” in Q6. Altogether 67.74% of the respondents from the UK are of the opinion that the influence of a person in management position is due to his or her expertise (see Table 6.6). Again this response is different from Pakistan. It represents a low-power distance culture which is the national culture of the UK.

The p-value of Q5 and Q6 for responses from the UK is 0.029 (see Table 6.3). Hence, we have strong evidence of an association between responses to Q5 and Q6. Respondents

who agree with Q5 are more likely to agree with option “expertise” in Q6. This response is different from the response from Pakistan. It represents a low-power distance culture.

	Agree or s. agree %	Disagree or s. Disagree %	Don't know %
4. In the NBP some traditions are given by a person in management position.	80.64	12.90	6.45
5. If an employee took a complaint to a person higher than his/her own boss, he/she would suffer later on for doing so.	22.58	77.41	-
	Position or personality %	Expertise or none %	Don't know %
6. Influence of a person in a management position is due to	25.80	67.74	3.22

Total number of respondents = 31

Table 6.6 Respondents' opinion regarding the second factor found to influence organisational culture (Influence of a dominant leader) (UK data)

6.3.3 Company History and Traditions

Three questions were asked to ascertain the influence of company history and traditions on the organisational culture of NBP. The questions and a summary of their responses from Pakistan are given in Figure 6.5.

Question 8 is in reverse order: it is formulated so that a respondent who agrees with question 7 tends to disagree with question 8 or vice versa. The estimated odds ratio of Q7 and Q8 is 0.614 and 95% confidence interval for this odds ratio (0.335, 1.123) includes 1.0, hence there is no evidence that responses to Q7 and Q8 are associated.

Q 7. Traditions followed since long ago.

Q 8. Freedom to challenge traditional ways of doing things.

Q 9. Manager ready to consider a good idea.

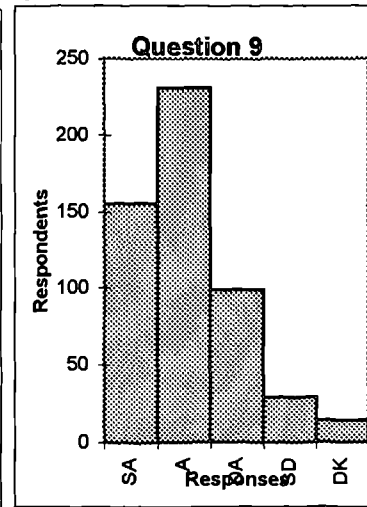
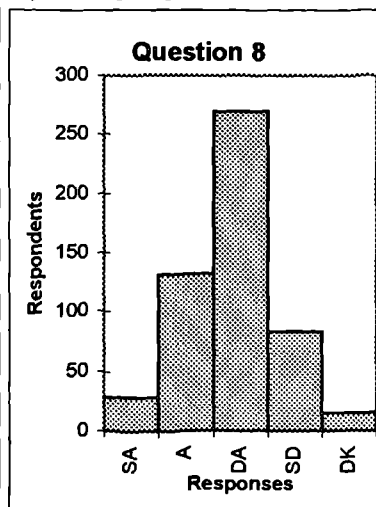
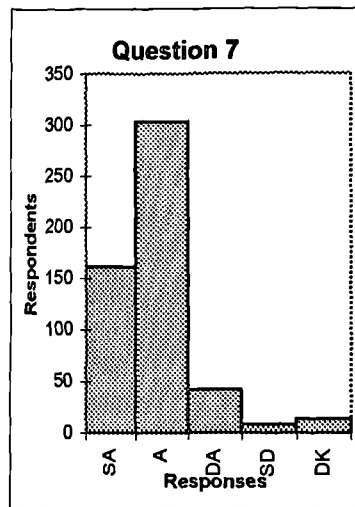


Figure 6.5a Responses to Q7
(Pak data)

Figure 6.5b Responses to Q8
(Pak data)

Figure 6.5c Responses to Q9
(Pak data)

Although there is no statistical evidence of association in responses to Q7 and Q8, if we see the 2x2 table of Q7 and Q8, 319 out of 454 respondents who agree with Q7 disagree with Q8 (see Table 6.7). It shows a trend in the responses to Q7 and Q8. The majority of the respondents (87.10%) to Q7 agreed or strongly agreed that there are some traditions in NBP which have been followed for a long time, and 91.67% of the respondents to Q8 disagree that there is freedom in NBP to challenge traditional ways of doing things (see Table 6.7). Hence we can say that there is the same trend in the answers to these two questions and it represents an autocratic culture (high-power distance). Only 38.70% of the respondents from the UK strongly agreed or agreed with Q7 whereas 54.83% of the respondents have chosen the option “Don’t know” for this question (see Table 6.9). It is perhaps, because the respondents are far away from the Pakistan and they are not aware of any traditions followed. The responses to Q8 from UK are different from responses to this question from Pakistan (see Table 6.9). 70.96% of the respondents from the UK strongly agreed or agreed that there is freedom to challenge traditional way of doing things (see Table 6.9). This represents a democratic culture (low-power distance) which is the national culture of the UK.

TABLE OF Q7 BY Q8				
Q7	Q8			
Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	Agree	Disagree	Total	
Agree	135 26.84 29.74 87.10	319 63.42 70.26 91.67	454 90.26	
Disagree	20 3.98 40.82 12.90	29 5.77 59.18 8.33	49 9.74	
Total	155 30.82	348 69.18	503 100.00	
Frequency Missing = 25				

Table 6.7 Responses to Q7 and Q8 (Pak data)

The estimated odds ratio of Q7 and Q9 is 0.838 and the confidence interval for this is 0.415, 1.694 (see Table 6.1). The confidence interval does include 1.0, hence there is no evidence that responses to Q7 and Q9 are associated. 73.11% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with Q9 that “my manager is always ready to consider a good idea” (see Table 6.8). This answer to Q9 is strongly supported by the replies from the UK (96.77%) (see Table 6.9). Q9 was asked to determine the conservativeness or radicalness of the organisation in response to a good idea. A strong company history and traditions, as shown by responses to Q8 and Q9, indicate that there is a high-power distance and collectivist culture. In a high-power distance and caring culture, the manager is always ready to consider a good idea (Tayeb, 1988).

Q 8 and Q 9 are in reverse order which means that a respondent who agrees with Q 8 disagrees with question 9 or vice versa. The estimated odds ratio of Q8 and Q9 is 3.330 which is greater than 1.0. It is estimated that a respondent who disagrees with Q8, is 3.330 times more likely to disagree with Q9 compared to a person who agrees with Q8.

The 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio (1.957, 5.666) does not include 1.0 hence there is evidence that responses to Q8 and Q9 are strongly associated. The responses from branches in the UK are shown in Figure 6.6.

	Agree or s. agree %	Disagree or s. disagree %	Don't know %
7. There are some traditions in the NBP which have been followed since a long ago.	87.88	9.47	2.65
8. There is freedom in the NBP to challenge traditional ways of doing things.	30.49	66.67	2.84
9. My manager is always ready to consider a good idea.	73.11	24.24	2.65

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.8 Respondents' opinion regarding the third factor found to influence organisational culture (Company history and traditions) (Pak data)

Q 7. Traditions followed since a long ago.

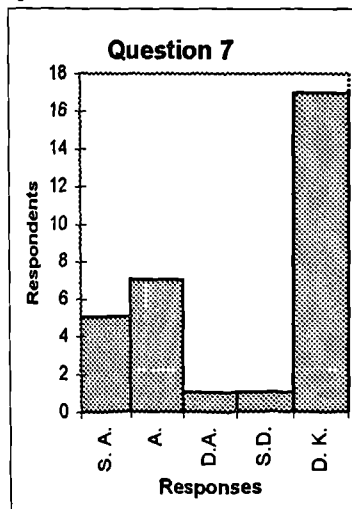


Figure 6.6a Responses to Q7 (UK data)

Q 8. Freedom to challenge traditional ways of doing things.

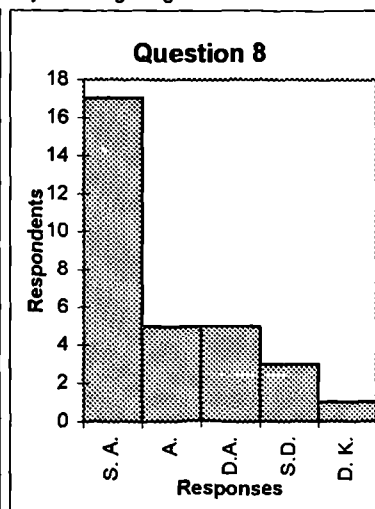


Figure 6.6b Responses to Q8 (UK data)

Q 9. Manager ready to consider a good idea.

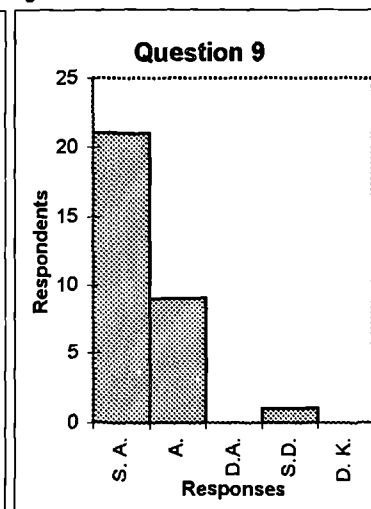


Figure 6.6c Responses to Q9 (UK data)

The responses from the UK are different from Pakistan. The p-value for Q7 and Q8 for responses from the UK is 0.165 (see Table 6.3). Hence we have strong evidence of no association between Q7 and Q8. Respondents who agree with Q7 are more likely to agree

with Q8 instead of disagree (a reverse order question). The same trend is present in responses to Q8 and Q9. The p-value for Q8 and Q9 for responses from the UK is 0.267. Hence we have strong evidence of no association between Q8 and Q9.

	Agree or s. agree %	Disagree or s. disagree %	Don't know %
7. There are some traditions in the NBP which have been followed since a long ago.	38.70	6.45	54.83
8. There is freedom in the NBP to challenge traditional ways of doing things.	70.96	25.80	3.22
9. My manager is always ready to consider a good idea.	96.77	3.22	-

Total number of respondents = 31

Table 6.9 Respondents' opinion regarding the third factor found to influence organisational culture (Company history and traditions) (UK data)

6.3.4 Technology, Products and Services

The following question, given in Figure 6.7 was asked to ascertain the perceived influence of this factor. Only one question was asked because the technology is at an early stage of development in Pakistan, and respondents are not familiar with this technology. However, two other questions were asked to compare the responses with those regarding computer technology specifically. (These questions, Q18 and Q19 were located further in the questionnaire in order to minimise the influence of the response to the general technology question, Q10.)

Altogether 47.54% of the respondents are of the opinion that technology and services have medium impact, 27.27% of the respondents are of the opinion that it has high impact and 23.67% of the respondents are of the view that it has low impact on the business of NBP (see Table 6.10). Nearly half the respondents (47.54%) indicate that the impact is medium. It might be due to the early stage of development of technology in Pakistan, but in other questions (Q18 and Q19) it is indicated by respondents that computer technology is very beneficial for NBP. This apparent inconsistency was investigated further in the qualitative study and is discussed in Chapter 7.

Q 10. The impact of technology, products and services on the business.

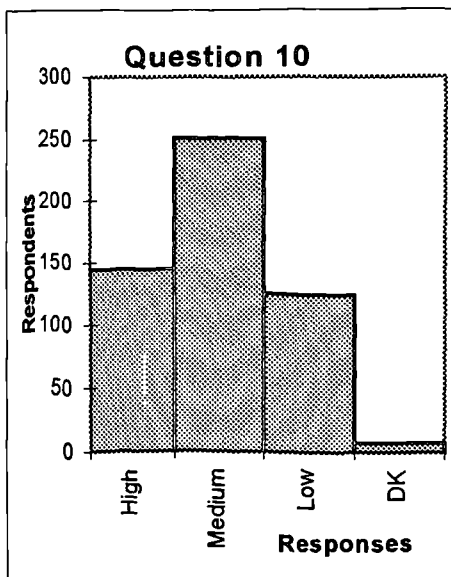


Figure 6.7 Responses to Q10
(Pak data)

Q 10. The impact of technology, products and services on the business.

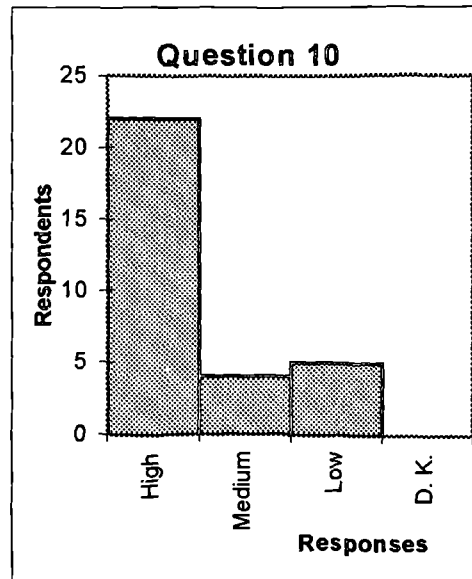


Figure 6.8 Responses to Q10
(UK data)

	High %	Medium %	Low %	Don't know %
10. The impact of technology, products and services.	27.27	47.54	23.67	1.52

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.10 Respondents' opinion regarding the fourth factor found to influence organisational culture (Technology, products and services) (Pak data)

The respondents from the UK have indicated a high influence of technology (as summarised in Figure 6.8). It is perhaps because the respondents are in a developed country, and the use of technology is much greater in the UK as compared to Pakistan.

6.3.5 The Industry and Its Competition

The following two questions, given in Figure 6.9, were asked to ascertain the influence of this factor.

Q 11. The economic environment of the NBP can change rapidly.

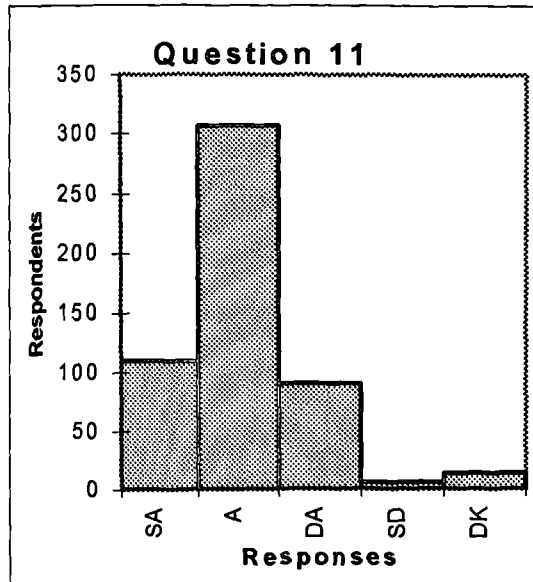


Figure 6.9a Responses to Q11 (Pak data)

Q 12. The economic environment of the NBP is predictable.

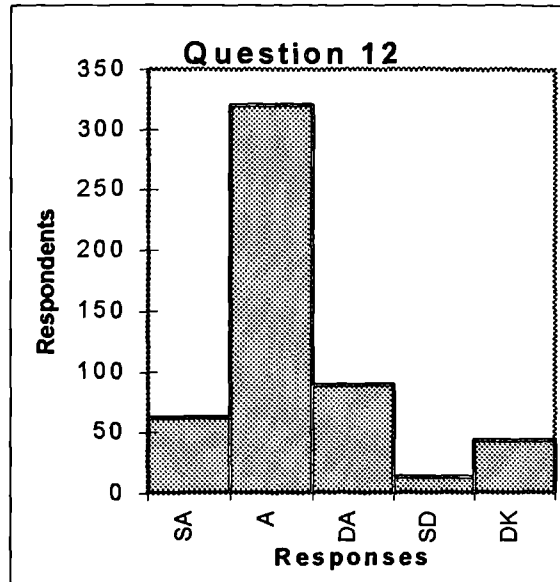


Figure 6.9b Responses to Q12 (Pak data)

Figure 6.9 illustrates the responses to the above questions. The estimated odds ratio of Q11 and Q12 and 95% confidence interval is given in Table 6.1. It shows evidence that responses to Q11 and Q12 are strongly associated. The survey shows that 79.17% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that the economic environment of NBP can change rapidly (see Table 6.11). As many as 72.54% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that the economic environment of NBP is predictable (see Table 6.11). To the reader the responses to Q11 and Q12 might appear contradictory. However, this apparent contradiction can be explained. NBP is a member of the global banking community and prevailing conditions within the community are usually those of rapid change. For example, interest rates fluctuate rapidly to reflect economic/financial circumstances as they occur. This would suggest the reason for responses to Q11. NBP as a Pakistani business exists within the economic environment of Pakistan. As a developing economy there

appears to be a reasonable level of predictability in the events. This would suggest the reason for responses to Q12. Because of predictability of the economic environment, Deal and Kennedy (1982) and Brown (1998) describe it as a process culture (see Subsection 3.4.3) in which employees tend to focus on how they do something rather than what they do. The responses from the UK were not significant for this factor, hence they could not be used for comparative purposes.

	Agree or s. agree %	Disagree or s. disagree %	Don't know %
11. The economic environment of the NBP can change rapidly.	79.17	18.18	2.65
12. The economic environment of the NBP is predictable.	72.54	19.32	8.14

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.11 Respondents' opinion regarding the fifth factor found to influence organisational culture (The industry and its competition) (Pak data)

6.3.6 Customers

The following two questions, given in Figure 6.10, were asked to ascertain the influence of this factor.

Q 13. In the NBP the customer always comes first.

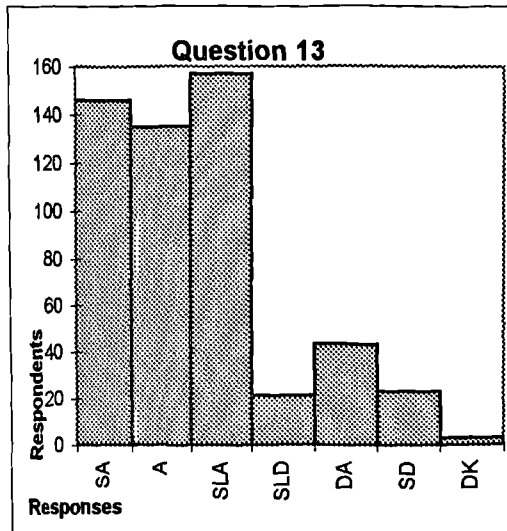


Figure 6.10a Responses to Q13 (Pak data)

Q 14. The number of customers of the NBP is.

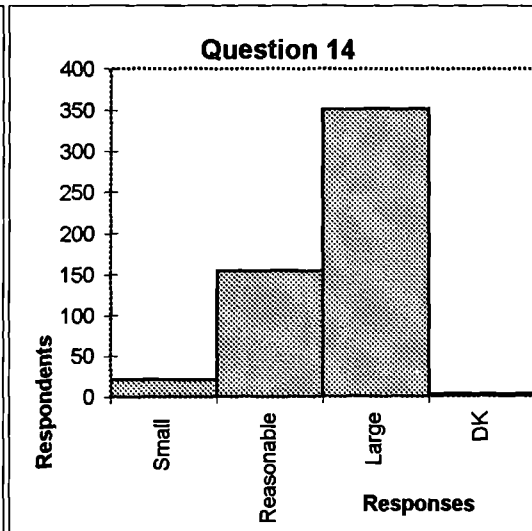


Figure 6.10b Responses to Q14 (Pak data)

Figure 6.10 shows the responses to Q13 and Q14 regarding customers' influence on the organisational culture of NBP. The odds ratio test was not possible to assess association between responses because of the different types of responses to the above questions. However, survey results show that 82.95% of the respondents strongly agreed, agreed or slightly agreed with the question that "the customer always comes first" in NBP (see Table 6.12). Altogether 66.48% of the respondents are of the opinion that the number of customers or clients of NBP is large (see Table 6.12). As responses to Q14 show, NBP has a large amount of customers and it does not therefore depend on only a few customers. Hence the culture of NBP is not greatly influenced by just a few customers. This can be described as a process culture where the number of customers is large and the influence of each of them is low. The opposite of process culture is a work-hard/play-hard culture. Work-hard/play-hard is a low-risk and quick-feedback culture (see Subsection 3.4.3).

	Agree or s. agree %	Disagree or s. disagree %	Don't know %
13. In the NBP customers always comes first.	82.95	16.47	0.58
	Small %	Reasonable %	Large %
14. The number of customers/clients of the NBP is.	3.98	29.17	66.48

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.12 Respondents' opinion regarding the sixth factor found to influence organisational culture (Customers) (Pak data)

As many as 96.77% of the respondents (to Q13) from the UK were also of the opinion that in NBP the customer always comes first, and 64.52% of the respondents indicated that the number of customers of NBP in UK is reasonable (see Table 6.13). The number of customers of NBP in UK is reasonable rather than large, perhaps because the competition of NBP with local banks keeps the number of customers lower and because some facilities are not provided by NBP to its customers, such as automatic teller machines (ATMs) and credit cards which again results in fewer customers.

	Agree or s. agree %	Disagree or s. disagree %	Don't know %
13. In the NBP customers always comes first.	96.77	-	3.22
	Small %	Reasonable %	Large %
14. The number of customers/clients of the NBP is.	9.67	64.52	19.35

Total number of respondents = 31

Table 6.13 Respondents' opinion regarding the sixth factor found to influence organisational culture (Customers) (UK data)

6.3.7 Company Expectations

The following three questions, given in Figure 6.11, were asked to ascertain the influence of company expectations on the culture of NBP. The response "high" in question 15, "output" and "efforts" in question 17 are linked by respondents as can be seen from the data presented in graphs in Figure 6.11. Altogether 51.32% of the respondents responded "efforts or output" as compared to 35.41% who responded "quality or loyalty" (see Table 6.14).

Q 15. The expectation of the NBP regarding employees' work is.

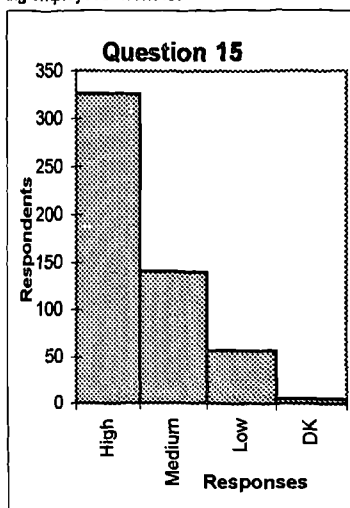


Figure 6.11a Responses to Q15 (Pak data)

Q 16. The NBP demands outstanding performance from its employees.

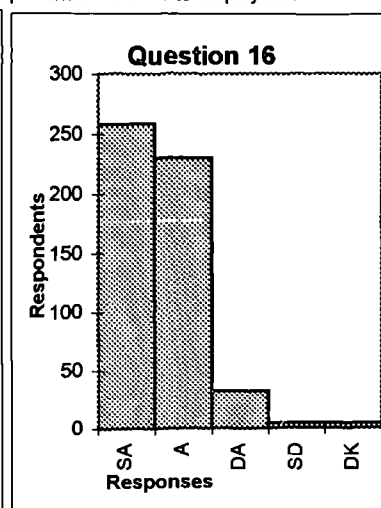


Figure 6.11b Responses to Q16 (Pak data)

Q 17. In NBP performance of employees is evaluated mainly on.

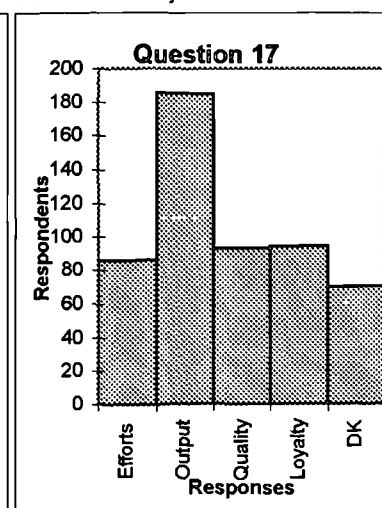


Figure 6.11c Responses to Q17 (Pak data)

Figure 6.11 illustrates the responses to the three questions. The estimated odds ratio of Q15 and Q16 and, 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio are given in Table 6.1. The confidence interval does not include 1.0, hence there is evidence that responses to Q15 and Q16 are strongly associated. In response to Q15, 61.75% of the respondents have replied that the expectation of NBP regarding employees' work is "high" (see Table 6.14). As many as 92.42% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with Q16 that NBP demands outstanding performance from its employees (see Table 6.14). To create a 2x2 table for the odds ratio, efforts and output were taken in one group, quality and loyalty in the other group. Altogether 51.32% of the respondents to Q17 have replied that performance of an employee is evaluated mainly on efforts or output (see Table 6.14). A culture where expectation is high, that demands outstanding performance and that is evaluated mainly on "output or efforts" is called an exacting culture (Sethia and Von Glinow, 1985). The alternative of this is a caring culture where employees are expected to make reasonable efforts and promotions are infrequent.

	High %	Medium %	Low %	Don't know %
15. The expectation of the NBP.	61.75	26.51	10.79	0.95
	Agree or s. agree %	Disagree or s. disagree %	Don't know %	
16. The NBP demands outstanding performance.	92.42	6.82	0.76	
	Efforts or outputs %	Quality or loyalty %	Don't know %	
17. In NBP performance is evaluated on.	51.32	35.41	13.25	

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.14 Respondents' opinion regarding the seventh factor found to influence organisational culture (Company expectations) (Pak data)

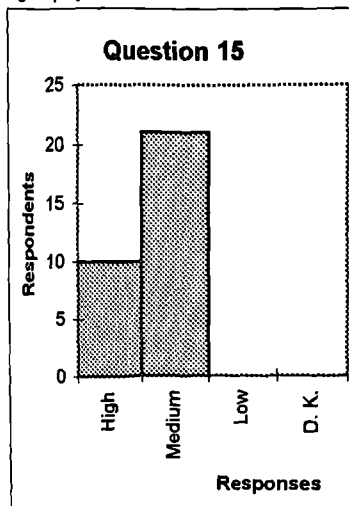
The estimated odds ratio of Q15 and Q17 shown in Table 6.1 is greater than 1.0. It is estimated that a respondent who chooses the "high" option for question 15, is 3.323 times more likely to choose the "output" option for Q17 compared to a person who chooses "low" for Q16 (see Table 6.1). The 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio does not

include 1.0 hence there is evidence that responses to Q15 and Q17 are strongly associated (see Table 6.1). In response to Q17, more than half of the respondents (51.32%) are of the opinion that the performance of the employees is evaluated mainly on “efforts or output” (see Table 6.14).

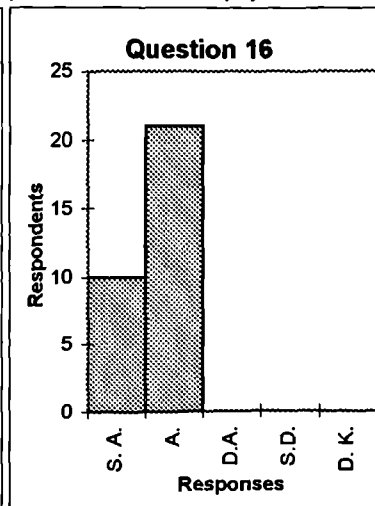
The estimated odds ratio and confidence interval of Q16 and Q17 are given in Table 6.1. There is evidence that responses to Q16 and Q17 are strongly associated. The above discussion shows that there is a strong association between responses to the above three questions in the category of company expectations. A company’s expectations have a large influence on how its employees behave (Drennan, 1992).

Apart from replies to Q17, responses to Q15 and Q16 from the UK are in line with responses from Pakistan (see Figure 6.12). Q17 is about the evaluation of employees’ performance. 67.74% of the respondents from the UK are of the opinion that in NBP the performance of an employee is evaluated mainly on quality and loyalty (see Table 6.15). It indicates that local culture has some influence on the organisational culture of NBP in the UK.

Q 15. The expectation of the NBP regarding employees' work is.



Q 16. The NBP demands outstanding performance from its employees.



Q 17. In NBP performance of employees is evaluated mainly on.

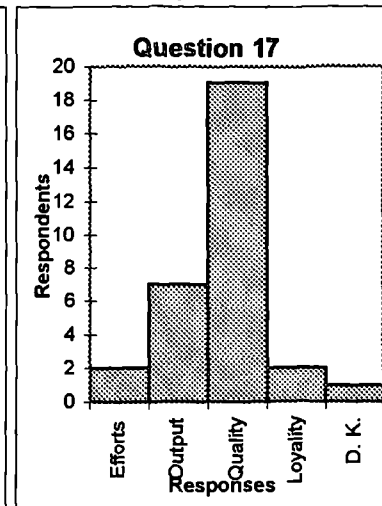


Figure 6.12a Responses to Q15 (UK data)

Figure 6.12b Responses to Q16 (UK data)

Figure 6.12c Responses to Q17 (UK data)

	High %	Medium %	Low %	Don't know %
15. The expectation of the NBP.	32.26	67.74	-	-
	Agree or s. agree %	Disagree or s. disagree %	Don't know %	
16. The NBP demands outstanding performance.	100	-	-	
	Efforts or outputs %	Quality or loyalty %	Don't know %	
17. In NBP performance is evaluated on.	29.03	67.74	3.22	

Total number of respondents = 31

Table 6.15 Respondents' opinion regarding the seventh factor found to influence organisational culture (Company expectations) (UK data)

6.3.8 Computerised Information and Control Systems

Two questions (see Figure 6.13) were asked to ascertain the influence of this factor.

Q 18. Computers can increase efficiency and accuracy in the bank.

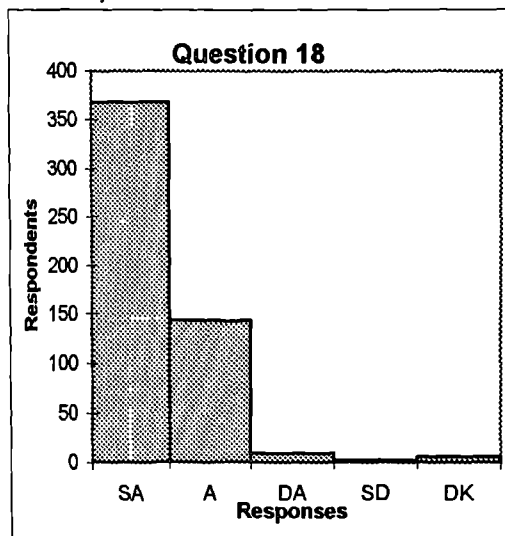


Figure 6.13a Responses to Q18 (Pak data)

Q 19. Computers are very useful for this bank.

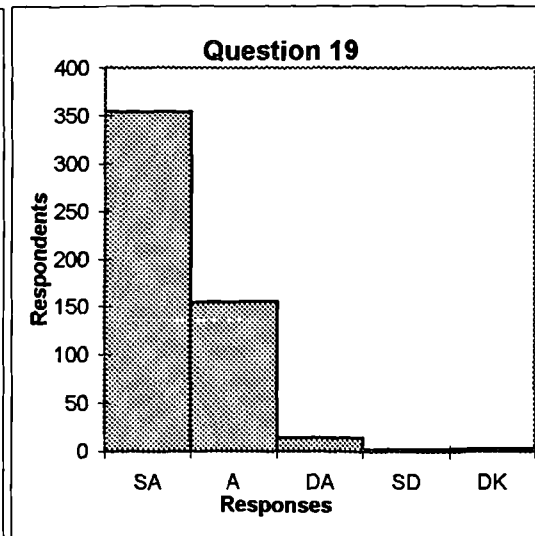


Figure 6.13b Responses to Q19 (Pak data)

Figure 6.13 illustrates the responses to questions 18 and 19. The estimated odds ratio and confidence interval of Q18 and Q19 are given in Table 6.1. There is evidence that responses to these questions are strongly associated. Almost everyone (96.78% and

96.40%) of the respondents believe that computers can increase efficiency and accuracy and that computers are very useful to this bank (see Table 6.16). This validates responses to Q10 where respondents believe that technology has a medium impact on the business of NBP. The employees might have believed “medium” because of the fact that computer technology is at an early stage of development in Pakistan and employees are not well aware of this technology. Whereas computerised information and control systems undoubtedly have influence in reshaping the structure and process of organisations in every kind of business especially in the banking business. For example, ATMs enable banks to provide the facility of withdrawing money at any time.

	Agree or s. agree %	Disagree or s. disagree %	Don't know %
18. Computers can increase efficiency and accuracy in the bank.	96.78	2.08	1.14
19. Computers are very useful to this bank.	96.40	3.03	0.57

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.16 Respondents' opinion regarding the eighth factor found to influence organisational culture (Computerised information and control systems) (Pak data)

Q 18. Computers can increase efficiency and accuracy in the bank.

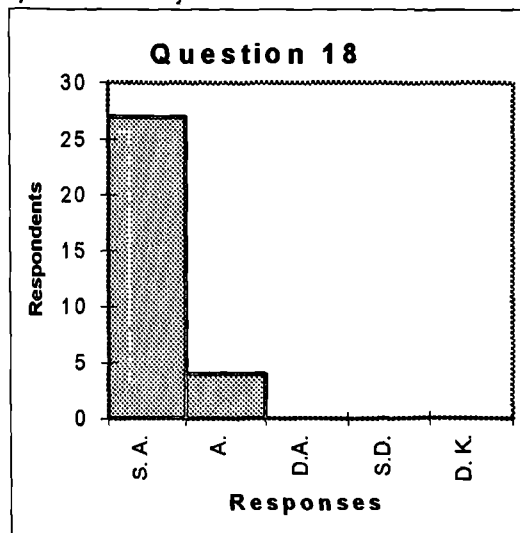


Figure 6.14a Responses to Q18 (UK data)

Q 19. Computers are very useful for to this bank.

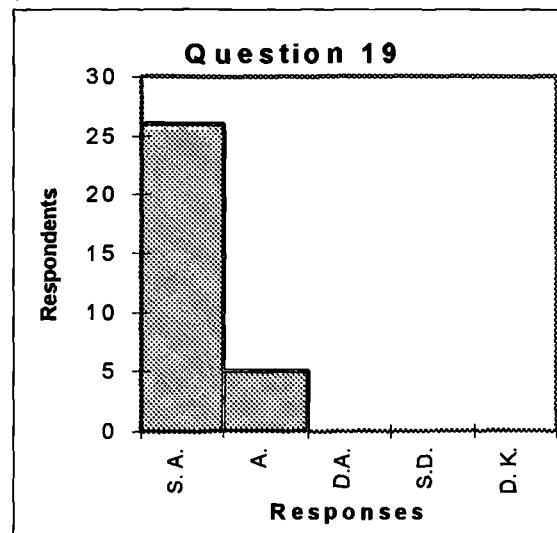


Figure 6.14b Responses to Q19 (UK data)

As shown in Figure 6.14 every respondent from the UK either “strongly agrees” or “agrees” with the two questions that computers can increase efficiency and accuracy and are very useful for the NBP. It is shown by the responses that respondents believe in the benefits of a computerised information and control systems.

6.3.9 Legislation

The two questions were asked to ascertain the influence of this factor on the organisational culture of NBP. Figure 6.15 illustrates the responses to the two questions.

Q 20. The law of this country as related to this bank.

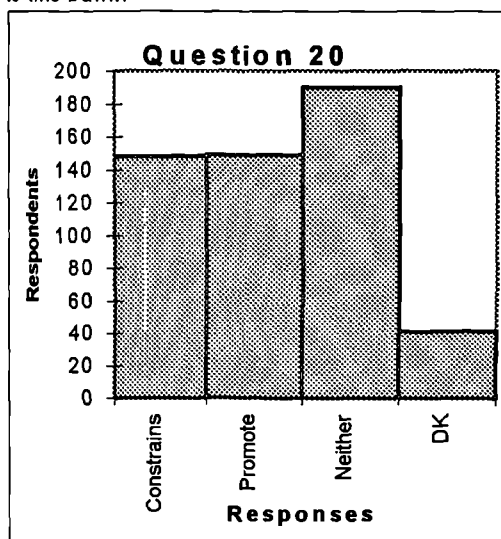


Figure 6.15a Responses to Q20 (Pak data)

Q 21. My colleagues regard the law of this country as

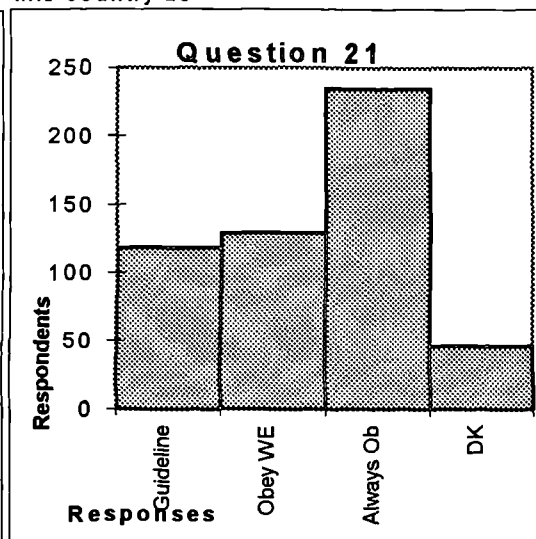


Figure 6.15b Responses to Q21 (Pak data)

Although it was not possible to prepare a 2x2 table for the above two questions due to the different categories of options for response, the 3x3 table of these questions shows a particular trend in responses (off diagonal). It shows that more than half of the respondents (51.79%) think that the law of this country neither constrains nor promotes business, and that the law of this country is always to be obeyed. A 3x3 table of Q20 and Q21 is given in Table 6.17. The large entries are off the diagonal in the Table 6.17, and this shows a particular trend in responses to Q20 and 21. This off diagonal relationship is explained below.

- In Table 6.17, 51.79% of respondents replied that the law of the country is always to be obeyed for Q21 and that the law of this country related to this bank neither constrains nor promotes business for Q20. This is compared to only 40.16% of the respondents who replied that it is to be obeyed with exceptions, and 12.84% of the respondents who replied that it is a guideline.

TABLE OF Q20 BY Q21				
Q20	Q21			
Frequency				
Percent				
Row Pct				
Col Pct	Guide- line	Obeyed with	Always obeyed	Total
Neither	14 3.08 7.82 12.84	49 10.77 27.37 40.16	116 26.49 64.80 51.79	179 39.34
Promote	46 10.11 32.62 42.20	36 7.91 26.53 29.51	59 12.97 41.84 26.34	141 30.99
Constrains	49 10.77 36.30 44.95	37 8.13 27.41 30.33	49 10.77 36.30 21.88	135 29.67
Total	109 23.96	122 26.81	224 49.23	455 100.00
Frequency Missing = 73				

Table 6.17 Showing a particular trend in responses to Q20 and Q21 (Pak data)

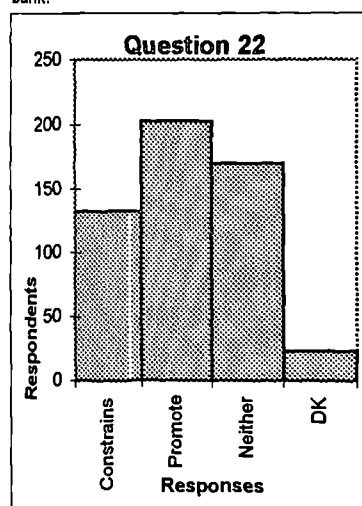
- Of those who replied that the law of the country is always to be obeyed for Q21 and that the law of this country related to this bank promotes business for Q20, altogether 26.34% consider the law is always to be obeyed, compared to 29.51% who replied that the law is to be obeyed with exceptions, and 42.20% who replied that it is a guideline.

- Of those who replied that the law of the country is always to be obeyed for Q21, and that the law of this country related to the bank constrains business for Q20, altogether 21.88% consider it is always to be obeyed, compared to 30.33% who replied that the law is to be obeyed with exceptions, and 44.95% who replied that it is a guideline.

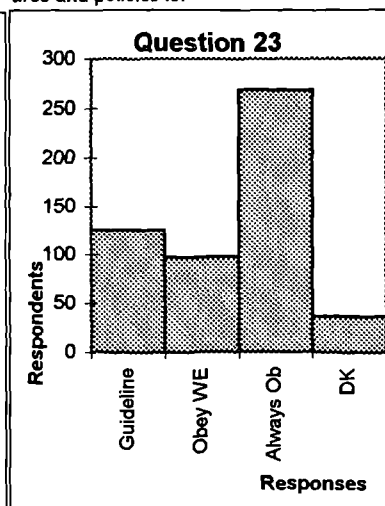
6.3.10 Procedures and Policies

Three questions were asked to ascertain the influence of this factor on the culture of NBP regarding type, organisational stance and employees' stance on procedures and policies of the bank.

Q 22. Procedures and policies of this bank.



Q 23. This bank's stance on procedures and policies is.



Q 24. Employees view procedures and policies of this bank as.

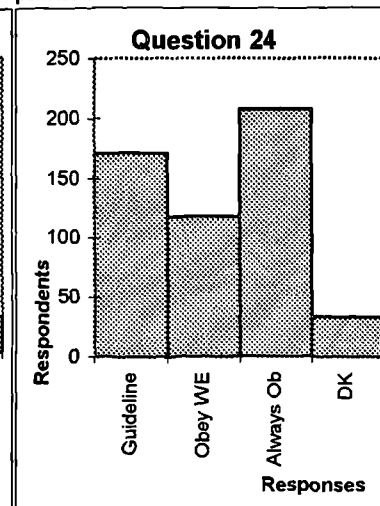


Figure 6.16a Responses to Q22 (Pak data)

Figure 6.16b Responses to Q23 (Pak data)

Figure 6.16c Responses to Q24 (Pak data)

Figure 6.16 illustrates the responses to the three questions. The odds ratio of Q22 and Q23 can not be checked because the responses are in different categories. The estimated odds ratio of Q23 and Q24 is greater than 1.0 (see Table 6.1). It is estimated that a respondent who responded "always to be obeyed" for Q23, is 4.878 times more likely to respond "always to be obeyed" for Q24 compared to a person who responded "guideline" for Q23. The 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio does not include 1.0 (see Table 6.1). Hence there is evidence that responses to Q23 and Q24 are strongly associated. Altogether 61.36% of the respondents have replied "always to be obeyed" or "obeyed

with exceptions” (two options are grouped) in response to Q24 (see Table 6.18). Procedures and policies are necessary as guidelines to help employees do a consistently good job for their organisation (Drennan, 1992). Whereas, if procedures and policies are implemented rigidly as shown by responses to Q23 and Q24 then employees are deprived of the authority to act promptly in different situations and this is a major source of employees’ frustration and alienation.

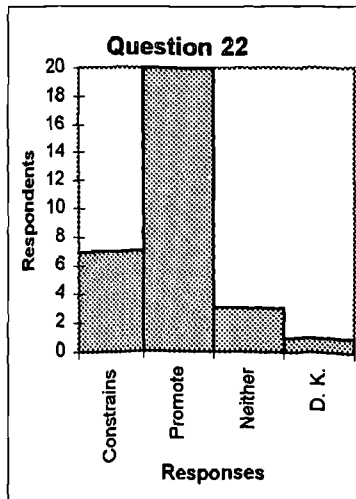
	Constrains %	Promotes %	Neither %	Don't know %
22. Procedures and policies of this bank.	25.00	38.45	32.20	4.35
	Guideline %	Obeied with exception %	Always obeied %	Don't know %
23. This bank stance on procedures and policies is.	23.67	18.56	50.76	7.01
24. Employees view procedures and policies of this bank as.	32.39	22.16	39.20	6.25

Total number of respondents = 528

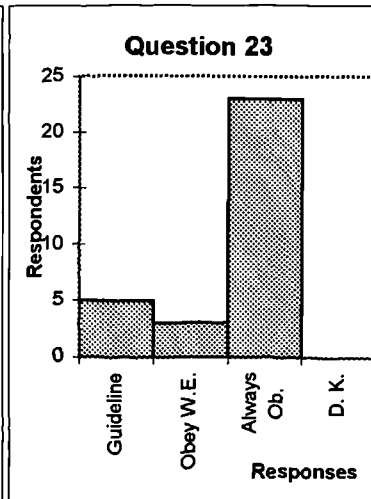
Table 6.18 Respondents’ opinion regarding the tenth factor found to influence organisational culture (Procedures and policies) (Pak data)

The trend of responses from Pakistan is also supported by the data from the UK. The questions and responses from the UK are shown in Figure 6.17. 74.20% of the respondents to Q23 are of the opinion that the bank’s stance on procedures and policies is “always to be obeyed” (see Table 6.19). 80.64% of the respondents to Q24 are of the opinion that employees view procedures and policies of this bank as “always to be obeyed” (see Table 6.19). This percentage is higher than the percentage of responses from Pakistan hence it shows a more strong adherence to procedures and policies in NBP in the UK.

Q 22. Procedures and policies of this bank.



Q 23. This bank's stance on procedures and policies is.



Q 24. Employees view procedures and policies of this bank as.

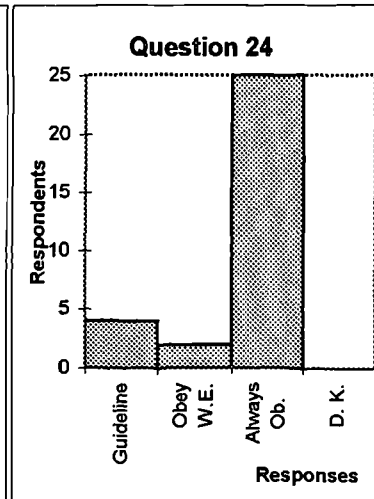


Figure 6.17a Responses to Q22 (UK data)

Figure 6.17b Responses to Q23 (UK data)

Figure 6.17c Responses to Q24 (UK data)

	Constrains %	Promotes %	Neither %	Don't know %
22. Procedures and policies of this bank.	22.58	64.51	9.67	3.22
	Guideline %	Obeyed w.e %	Always obeyed %	Don't know %
23. This bank stance on procedures and policies is.	16.13	9.67	74.20	-
24. Employees view procedures and policies of this bank as.	12.90	6.45	80.64	-

Total number of respondents = 31

Table 6.19 Respondents' opinion regarding the tenth factor found to influence organisational culture (Procedures and policies) (UK data)

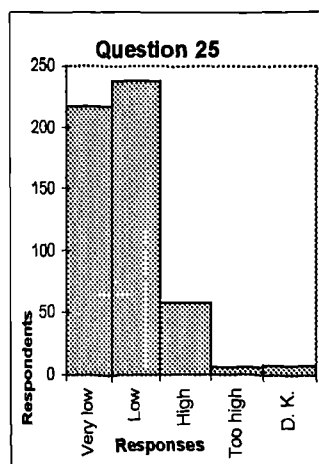
6.3.11 Rewards System and Measurement

The three questions, given in Figure 6.18, were asked to ascertain the influence of this factor on the organisational culture of NBP regarding number, application and orientation of the "rewards system and measurement" of the bank. A reverse scale was applied to

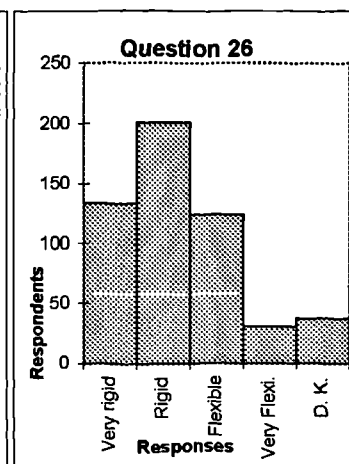
responses to Q25 so that a very first option “very low” cannot become a high score by responding to the very first option by every respondent.

Figure 6.18 illustrates the responses to the three questions. The estimated odds ratio of Q25 and Q26 shown in Table 6.1 is greater than 1.0, and the 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio does not include 1.0, hence there is evidence that responses to Q25 and Q26 are strongly associated. 86.36% of the respondents believe that the number of rewards system is “low” or “very low” in NBP and 63.45% of the respondents consider that this rewards system is “rigid” or “very rigid” (see Table 6.20). According to Sethia and Glinow (1985) a culture where rewards are few, rigid and where the main criterion for giving rewards is “output” or carrying out one’s “assigned role or job” is called an “apathetic culture.” The alternative of this culture is integrative culture where rewards are superior, there is high job-security and the emphasis is on group or company success rather than on individual success.

Q 25. The number of reward systems are.



Q 26. These reward systems are.



Q 27. The main criterion for giving rewards is

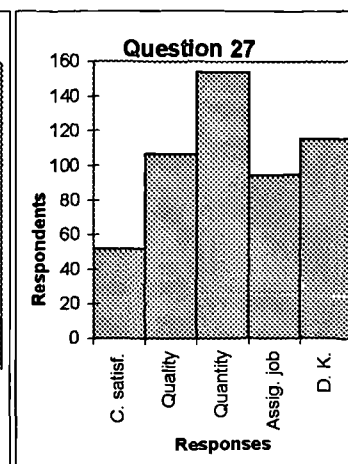


Figure 6.18a Responses to Q25 (Pak data) Figure 6.18b Responses to Q26 (Pak data) Figure 6.18c Responses to Q27 (Pak data)

The estimated odds ratio of Q25 and Q27 is 2.348. It is estimated that a respondent who responded for the “low” option for Q25, is 2.348 times more likely to respond to “output” for Q27 compared to a person who responded “high” for Q26. The 95% confidence

interval for the odds ratio (1.357, 4.064) does not include 1.0, hence there is evidence that responses to Q25 and Q27 are associated (see Table 6.1). 47.73% of the respondents to Q27 believe that main criterion for giving rewards is output or carrying out one's assigned role or job (these two options are grouped to create a 2x2 table for the odds ratio), 30.11% are of the opinion that the main criterion for giving rewards is quality or customer satisfaction (see Table 6.20). This shows that in NBP, the main criterion for giving rewards is thought to be output, or carrying out one's assigned role or job. 438 (82.95%) of the respondents "strongly agreed" or "agreed" with Q13 that in NBP customers always come first (see Table 6.12), there is also a printed slogan of the bank regarding the "importance of customers", however the reply to Q27 is "quantity" and "assigned role or job" instead of "customer satisfaction". According to Drennan (1992, p.3) "the culture of a business is not formed by what management preach or publish, but by what they accept in practice". Hence it is concluded that main criterion for giving rewards is "output" because it is accepted by the management of NBP (see Figure 6.18c). The data from the UK were not significant for this factor, hence it could not be used for comparative purposes.

	Low %	High %	Don't know %
25. The number of reward systems are.	86.36	12.12	1.52
	Rigid %	Flexible %	Don't know %
26. These reward systems are.	63.45	29.36	7.19
	Quantity or Assigned role %	Customers satisfaction or quality %	Don't know %
27. The main criterion for giving rewards is.	47.73	30.11	22.16

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.20 Respondents' opinion regarding the eleventh factor found to influence organisational culture (Reward systems and measurement) (Pak data)

6.3.12 Organisation and Resources

The two questions, given in Figure 6.19, were asked to ascertain the perceived influence of this factor on the organisational culture of NBP.

Q 28. The availability of funds to buy equipment, stationery, etc.

Q 29. Do you think these funds are.

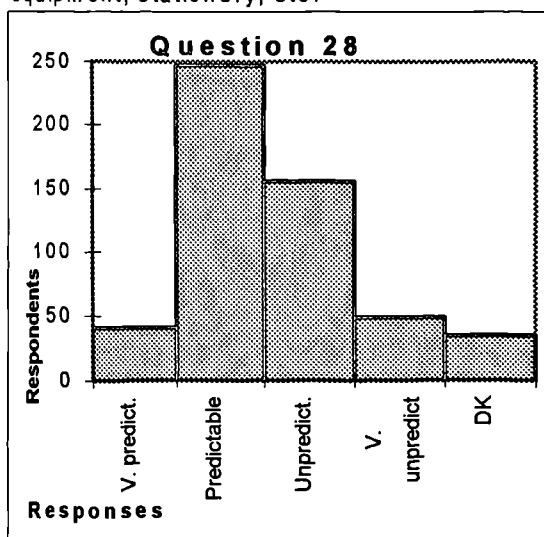


Figure 6.19a Responses to Q28
(Pak data)

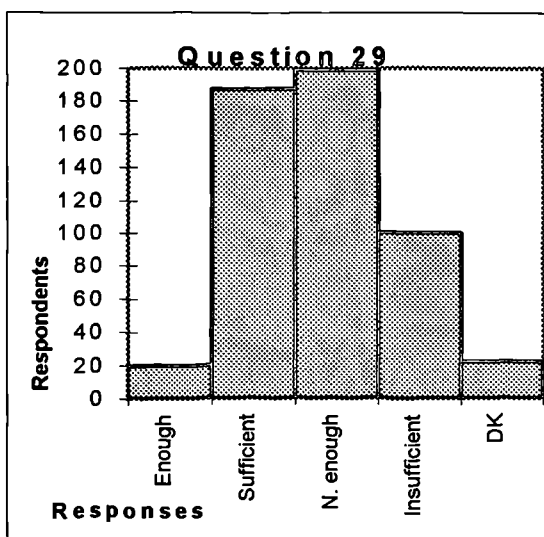


Figure 6.19b Responses to Q29
(Pak data)

Figure 6.19 also illustrates the responses to the two questions. The estimated odds ratio of Q28 and Q29 is greater than 1.0 (see Table 6.1). It is estimated that a respondent who responded “predictable” for Q28, is 5.284 times more likely to respond “not enough” for Q29 compared to a person who responded “unpredictable” for Q28. The 95% confidence interval for the odds ratio (3.469, 8.049) does not include 1.0, hence there is evidence that responses to Q28 and Q29 are strongly associated. The survey results show that 54.55% of the respondents to Q28 are of the opinion that availability of funds to buy equipment, stationery, etc. in NBP are “predictable” or “very predictable” (see Table 6.21). 56.63% of the respondents to Q29 believe that these funds are not quite enough or insufficient (see Table 6.21). The availability of resources to get the job done can make a crucial difference to employees’ attitudes (Drennan, 1992). If funds are inadequate, then employee morale stays low and mediocre performance becomes the norm. The majority of the respondents

from the UK replied “don’t know” to this factor, hence the data from the UK could not be used for comparative purposes.

	Predictable %	Un- predictable %	Don't know %
28. The availability of funds to buy equipment, stationery, etc. in the NBP is.	54.55	38.82	6.63
	Enough %	Not enough %	Don't know %
29. Do you think these funds are.	39.21	56.63	4.16

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.21 Respondents' opinion regarding the twelfth factor found to influence organisational culture (Organisation and resources) (Pak data)

6.3.13 Goals, Values and Beliefs

Four questions were asked to assess the influence of this factor on the culture of NBP regarding orientation (team vs. individuals), employees' attitude, type and orientation (customers' satisfaction, quality, output and the assigned role or job).

Figure 6.20 illustrates the responses to the four questions. The main purpose of Q30 was to check either the bank has an individualist or collectivist culture with regard to decisions. 37.12% of the respondents are of the opinion that well thought out decisions are usually made by the groups, as compared to 28.60% in favour of individuals and 28.22% in favour of both individuals and groups (see Table 6.22). A comparatively high percentage of the respondents are of the opinion that well thought out decisions are usually made by groups (see Table 6.22). This response was further cross validated during interviews (see Section 7.2 for details)

Q 30. Well thought out decisions are usually made by.

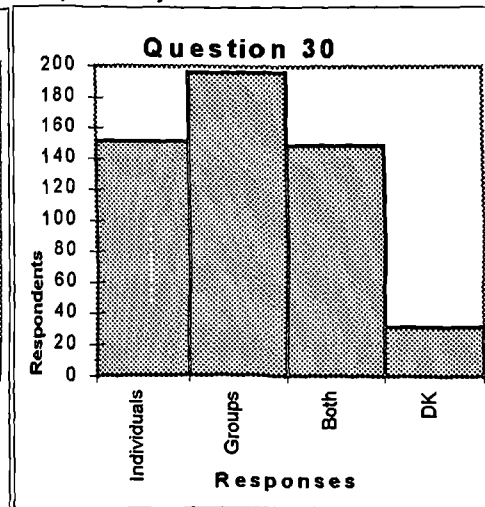


Figure 6.20a Responses to Q30
(Pak data)

Q 31. My colleagues obey the boss's orders without any questions.

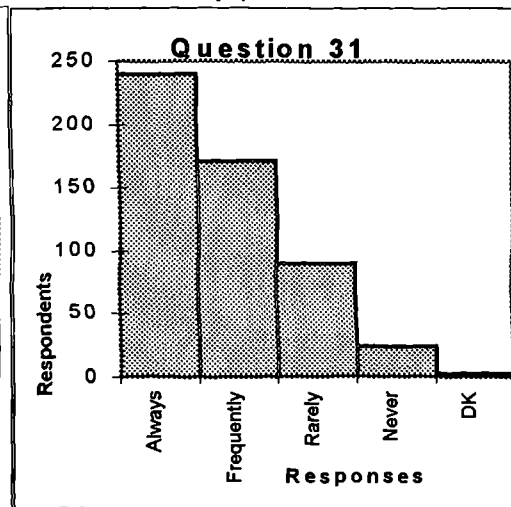


Figure 6.20b Responses to Q31
(Pak data)

Q 32. My colleagues are ready to accept change in their work.

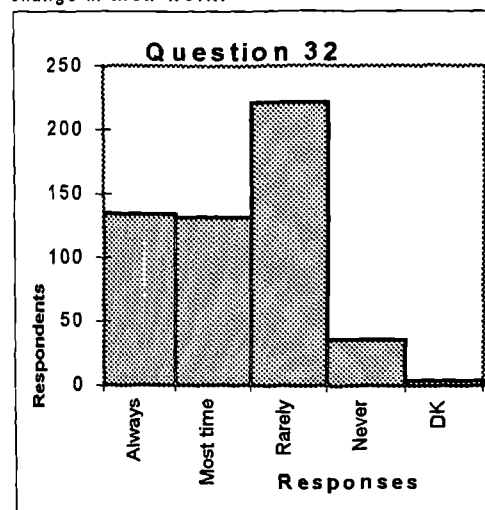


Figure 6.20c Responses to Q32
(Pak data)

Q 33. The employees' target is to satisfy.

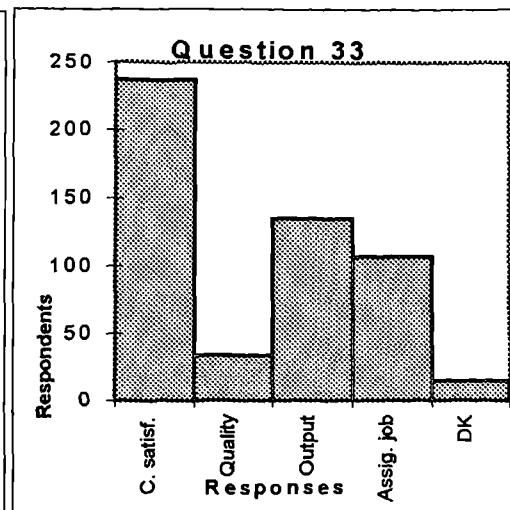


Figure 6.20d Responses to Q33
(Pak data)

The main purpose of Q31 was to validate the answers to Q1. In response to Q1, altogether 73.30% of the respondents are of the opinion that their colleagues are reluctant to disagree with their boss (see Table 6.2). These responses are further validated in Q31. As many as 77.84% of the respondents to Q31 are of the opinion that their colleagues always obey their boss's orders without any question (see Table 6.22). A higher

percentage (77.84%) of responses to Q31 supports the earlier responses to Q1 that employees in NBP reluctant to disagree with their boss and hence they obey their boss's order without any question. It shows an autocratic (high-power distance) culture in NBP as, according to Mulder (1977), in high-power distance countries subordinates consider superiors as being of a different kind.

	Individuals %	Groups %	Both %	Don't know %
30. Well thought out decisions are usually made by.	28.60	37.12	28.22	6.06
	Always %	Rarely %	Don't know %	
31. My colleagues obey boss's orders without any questions.	77.84	21.59	0.57	
32. My colleagues are ready to accept change in their work:	50.57	48.67	0.76	
	Customers %	Output %	Don't know %	
33. The employees' target is to satisfy.	51.33	45.83	2.84	

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.22 Respondents' opinion regarding the thirteenth factor found to influence organisational culture (Goals, values and beliefs) (Pak data)

The main purpose of Q32 was to validate the responses to Q2. Q2 considered the existence of uncertainty-avoidance culture. As discussed earlier 61.74% of the respondents to Q2 agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that they would generally prefer to do something they are used to rather than something that is different or new (see Table 6.2). This finding is in accordance with Mulder's (1977) findings that in uncertainty avoidance countries there is more emotional resistance to change and that people get upset if they think their routine is going to be disturbed (Drennan, 1992; Jessup and Valacich, 1999). About half (50.57%) of the respondents agreed and nearly half (48.67%) disagreed

with Q32 that their colleagues are ready to accept change in their work (see Table 6.22). Although the above percentages do not give a clear picture about uncertainty avoidance. They still provide some validation of the earlier replies to Q2. Q2 was a direct question where respondents were asked to give their perception about uncertainty avoidance, whereas Q32 was an indirect question where respondents were asked to give their opinion of other respondents. Statistical analysis has shown that there is an association between the actual responses to Q2 and Q32 (see Table 6.24). This mean that the 50.57% agreeing with Q32 were included in the 61.74% agreeing with Q2 and similarly 36.36% disagreeing with Q2 were included in the 48.67% disagreeing with Q32. Given this, it is argued that an uncertainty avoidance culture exists. However, it is accepted that further work is required to investigate the differential in responses to Q2 and Q32. For example, it may be that in this type of culture an external view of a person's willingness to accept change may be very different to his internal opinion. Hence the responses to Q2 and Q32 would be different as one tests internal opinion (Q2) and the other test an external view (Q32). Without doubt this is a rich seam of research for the future but is outside the remit of this thesis.

Q33 was asked to validate the responses to Q13, Q17 and Q27. Q13 was asked to see the importance of the customers in NBP, Q17 was asked to see the influence of the company's expectations and Q27 was asked to see the influence of rewards system and measurement. 82.95% of the respondents to Q13 were of the opinion that in NBP the customer or client always comes first (see Table 6.12). 51.32% of the respondents to Q17 were of the opinion that performance is evaluated on "effort or output" (see Table 6.14). A comparatively high percentage (47.73%) of the respondents to Q27 were of the opinion that the main criterion for giving rewards is "output or one's assigned role or job" as compared to only 30.11% of the respondents who were of the opinion that the main criterion for giving rewards is "customer satisfaction or quality of work" (see Table 6.20). The responses to Q17 and Q27 do not support earlier responses to Q13, whereas there is an evidence that responses to Q17 and Q27 are associated (see Table 6.24). These respondents to Q17 and Q27 believe that performance of employees is evaluated on

“output” (Q17) and main criterion for giving reward is “output” (Q27). However, responses (51.33%) to Q33 support earlier responses (82.95%) to Q13 where respondents are of the opinion that in the NBP customer always comes first (Q13) and employees’ target is to satisfy customers (Q33). Hence, from the above discussion it is concluded that respondents know that customers are important in the bank but they believe that they are both evaluated and rewarded on “quantity or output” instead of “quality or customers’ satisfaction”. They strive for output instead of customers’ satisfaction. This was further investigated during observations and interviews (see Chapter 7).

6.3.14 Don’t Know Replies

The “don’t know” option was included to differentiate between the respondents who don’t know the answer(s) and who don’t want to answer the question(s). There were only 16 (3%) questionnaires from Pakistan in which one or more values were missing. It shows that there were only 16 out of 528 respondents who may know the answers but had not replied. This 3% missing values was so nominal that these were filled in with mean scores. As has already been stated, while a mean score may not truly reflect the views of the respondents, such a score would enable their remaining responses to be considered, and whilst it might influence the patterns of perceived similarity it would not influence the determination of strong perceptual differences. The missing responses indicate that the respondents had some reservations (which were discussed during interviews) about answering these questions, and the “don’t know” option was also chosen more often for these questions by other respondents. These questions were concerned with types of company expectations, and orientation of rewards system and measurements. During the interviews it was indicated by a number of respondents that there is too much involvement of bribery and personal relations in the evaluation of employees’ performance and the criteria for giving rewards in NBP. Respondents were not satisfied with the process of evaluation of performance and the criteria for giving rewards and promotion.

The “don’t know” option also enabled the researcher to see how many respondents did not know the answer to a particular question. Table 6.23 shows the frequency of “don’t

know” responses for each question. The “don’t know” option was chosen more often for Q27 (117/528) by respondents who had less than 4 years of service in NBP. It shows that relatively new employees of the bank were not aware of the criteria for giving rewards. This also could be seen in a related question (Q17) where the “don’t know” option was exercised by 70 respondents. Q17 regarded evaluation of performance of an employee in the bank. These 70 employees are among the same respondents who exercised the “don’t know” option for Q27 and had less than 4 years of service in the bank. During the interviews it was stated by the majority of respondents that there was no planned induction regarding expectations of the bank (and its management). This might be the reason for “don’t know” answers to the above questions. The “don’t know” option for the remaining questions ranges from 2 (0.38%) to 46 (8.71%). The overall average of the don’t know “option” is 4.196% (see Table 6.23).

Questions	Don't know	%
1	10	1.89
2	10	1.89
3	6	1.14
4	19	3.60
5	26	4.92
6	12	2.27
7	14	2.65
8	15	1.52
9	14	2.65
10	8	1.52
11	14	2.65
12	43	8.14
13	3	0.57
14	2	0.38
15	5	0.95
16	4	0.76
17	70	13.26
18	6	1.14
19	3	0.57
20	41	7.77
21	46	8.71
22	23	4.36
23	37	7.01
24	33	6.25
25	8	1.52
26	38	7.20
27	117	22.16
28	35	6.63
29	22	4.17
30	32	6.06
31	3	0.57
32	4	0.76
33	15	2.84
Overall %		(138.48/33)=4.196%

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.23 Number of “don’t know” replies to various questions and their percentages

6.4 Association of Responses in Pairs Between Factors (Pak data)

Apart from the association of responses within factors in pairs (see Section 6.3), association between the factors (in pairs) was also assessed. The odds ratio tests were performed for this purpose. A summary of association in pairs (within and between factors) is given in Table 6.24. This table shows the association of responses to questions in brackets. For example, an association in responses to Q1 and Q2 is shown as (1,2) under cross reference of factor 1 from both sides in Table 6.24. The word “all” represents association in responses to all questions of that factor for which it is written. For example, an association in responses between factor 3 (company history and traditions) and single question of factor 1 (national culture) as Q7 and Q1, Q8 and Q1, Q9 and Q1 is shown as “(all,1)” under cross reference of factor 3 and factor 1. (The single word “all” represents association in responses to all questions within that factor under which the reference “all” is written.) For example, an association in responses within factor 2 (influence of a dominant leader) as Q4 and Q5, Q4 and Q6, Q5 and Q6 is shown as “(all)” under cross reference of factor 2 from both sides. It was not possible to perform the odds ratio test for Q20 and Q22 because three different options for responses cannot be grouped into two groups. However the 3x3 table of Q20 and Q22 shows that the large entries are on the diagonal. This trend is shown in Table 6.25.

- 69.33% replied that the law of the country relating to the bank neither constrains nor promotes business for Q20, and that procedures and policies of this bank neither constrain nor promote business for Q22. This is compared to only 20.43% who replied that law of the country relating to the bank promotes business, and 28.69% who replied that law of the country relating to the bank constrains business.
- Of those who replied that the law of the country relating to the bank promotes business for Q20, and that procedures and policies of this bank promotes business for Q22, 8.59% consider the law of the country neither constrains nor promote. Compared to 58.06% of those who replied promotes business, and 13.93% of those who replied as constrains business.

Factors & Qs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 (Q1,2,3)	(1,2,3) (1,2)	(Q4,5,6) (2,4) (2,5) (3,5)	(Q7,8,9) (1,all)	(Q10)	(Q11,12) (all,11) (1,12)	(Q13,14) (4,13) (5,13)	(Q15,16,17) (all,16) (1,17)	(Q18,19) (1,all) (2,18)	(Q20,21)	(Q22,23,24) (2,24)	(Q25,26,27) (2,31) (2,32)	(Q28,29)	(Q30,31,32,33)
2 (Q4,5,6)	(4,2) (5,2) (5,3)	(all)	(4,7) (5,9)		(4,12)				(6,21)	(5,24) (6,24)			
3 (Q7,8,9)	(all,1)	(7,4) (9,5)	(8,9)		(8,11)		(9,16)						
4 (Q10)													
5 (Q11,12)	(11,all) (12,1)	(12,4)	(11,8)		(all)	(all,13)	(all,16)						
6 (Q13,14)		(13,4) (13,5)			(13,all)		(13,16)						(13,33)
7 (Q15,16,17)	(16,all) (17,1)		(16,7) (16,9)		(16,all)	(16,13)	(all)	(16,18)			(17,27)		
8 (Q18,19)	(all,1) (18,2)						(18,16)	(all)					
9 (Q20,21)		(21,6)							(all)	(20,22) (21,23) (21,24)			
10 (Q22,23,24)	(24,2)	(24,5) (24,6)							(22,20) (23,21) (24,21)	(23,24)			
11 (Q25,26,27)							(27,17)				(25,26) (25,27)		
12 (Q28,29)											(all)		
13 (Q30,31,32,33)	(31,2) (32,1) (32,2)										(33,13)		(31,32)

Table 6.24 Summary of association of responses in pairs (within and between factors)

- Of those who replied that the law of the country relating to the bank constrains business for Q20, and procedures and policies of the bank constrains business for Q22, 22.09% consider it neither constrains nor promote business of the bank compared to 21.51% of those who replied as promotes, and 57.38% replied as constrains business.

TABLE OF Q20 BY Q22				
Q20	Q22			
Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	Neither	Promote	Constrains	Total
Neither	113 23.99 60.75 69.33	38 8.07 20.43 20.43	35 7.43 18.82 28.69	186 39.49
Promote	14 2.97 10.07 8.59	108 22.93 77.70 58.06	17 3.61 12.23 13.93	139 29.51
Constrains	36 7.64 24.66 22.09	40 8.49 27.40 21.51	70 14.86 47.95 57.38	146 31.00
Total	163 34.61	186 39.49	122 26.90	471 100.00
Frequency Missing = 57				

Table 6.25 Responses to Q20 and Q22 (Pak data)

The data provides strong evidence of a positive relationship in the responses to Q20 and Q22 regarding that the law of the country neither constrains nor promotes business. The association in responses between factors shows a strong cohesion in the responses for various factors. The UK data was small, and it is not discussed for the questions where it was insignificant, hence the association of responses in pairs between factors cannot be discussed.

The outcome of responses are summarised in Section 6.6. These outcomes are supported by the mean score of each factor which is given in Table 6.26. The calculation of the mean score forms the subject of next paragraph.

• Calculation of the Mean Score

The mean score of each question was calculated using a Likert-type scale (see Subsection 5.3.1 for details). For example, in case of Q1, the replies options were “strongly agree”, “agree”, “disagree”, “strongly disagree” and “don’t know”. These options were defined with Likert-type scale as 5, 4, 3, 2, 1 where 5 represents “strongly agree” and 1 represents “don’t know”. The mean score was the summation of the Likert values of the replies (528) divided by the number of replies (528). The outcome of this is given in Table 6.26. Similarly mean scores for other questions were calculated depending upon the options available for their replies (4, 5 or 7 for some questions). The overall mean score for each factor (factors found to influence organisational culture) was calculated by adding the mean score of each question in that factor and dividing by the number of questions in that factor. For example, for factor 1 (national culture), the total of mean scores of 3 questions was 12 which was divided by 3 (number of questions in this factor) hence, overall mean score for this factor was 4 (see Figure 6.26), which represents an autocratic culture. However, for certain questions, the Likert-type scale was applied in reverse order to check the responses because employees of the bank were not familiar with research and there was a possibility that they might tick the first option for each question. For example, in case of Q23 and Q24, Likert-type scale was applied as 2, 3, 4 and 1 where 4 represents “always to be obeyed” and 1 represents “don’t know. For the creation of 2X2 table, to check the association in responses to Q23 and Q24, “always to be obeyed” and “obeyed with exceptions” were grouped in one category. Hence, a mean score of 3 or 4 will represent strict adherence to procedure and policies (see Subsection 6.3.10 for details).

Factors found to influence organisational culture	Questions	Mean Score of each question	Overall mean score of each factor
1. National culture	Q1 Q2 Q3	4 4 4	4.00
2. Influence of a dominant leader	Q4 Q5 Q6	5 4 4	4.33
3. Company history and traditions	Q7 Q8 Q9	4 4 3	3.67
4. Technology, products and services	Q10	3	3.00
5. The Industry and its competition	Q11 Q12	4 4	4.00*
6. Customers	Q13 Q14	5 4	4.50
7. Company expectations	Q15 Q16 Q17	3 4 3	3.40
8. Computerised information and control systems	Q18 Q19	5 5	5.00*
9. Legislation	Q20 Q21	3 3	3.00*
10. Procedures and policies	Q22 Q23 Q24	3 3 3	3.00*
11. Rewards system and measurement	Q25 Q26 Q27	3 4 2.8	3.30
12. Organisation and resources	Q28 Q29	3 3	3.00
13. Goals, values and beliefs	Q30 Q31 Q32 Q33	3 4 3 4	3.50

(Note: * indicates highest mean score of the category).

Table 6.26 Showing mean score of each factor

6.5 Respondents' Demographic Information

This section analyses the respondents' demographic data. Completed questionnaires were received from 528 staff members of 79 branches of NBP in Pakistan and 31 staff members of 4 branches in the UK. The demographic data collected includes sex, marital status, number of dependents, age, position of employee and service in NBP.

The majority of the respondents 402 (76.14%) are in subordinate positions and only 126 (23.86%) are managers or senior managers (see Figure 6.21 and Table 6.27). Most of the respondents (401, 75.95%) are over 29 years old and only 3 (0.57%) are under 20 years, 124 (23.48%) are between the ages of 20 to 29 (see Figure 6.22 and Table 6.28). The majority of the respondents (497, 94.13%) are male and only 31 (5.87%) are female (see Figure 6.23 and Table 6.29). Altogether 432 (81.82%) of the respondents are married (78.22% male and 3.60% female) and only 96 (18.18%) are unmarried (15.91% male and 2.27% female) (see Table 6.29).

From the survey it appears that 398 (75.38%) of the respondents have 3 or more dependents and only 51 (9.66%) have no dependents. Altogether 79 (14.96%) have 1 or 2 dependents (see Figure 6.24 and Table 6.30).

The survey results show that 405 (76.70%) respondents have 5 or more years service in NBP whereas 123 (23.30%) have less than 5 years service (see Figure 6.25 and Table 6.31).

Almost all the respondents (including managers and senior managers) who are over the age of 29 years, married, having 3 or more dependents and 5 or more years service in the bank, consider the organisational culture of NBP as high-power distance (autocratic) whereas respondents below the age of 29 years, unmarried, having 2 or less than 2 dependents, less than 5 years service in NBP, perceive it as low-power distance (democratic) in Q1 to Q9. This pattern of response is also confirmed by Q40 which was asked to ascertain the intention of respondents regarding uncertainty avoidance. 427

(80.88%) of the respondents replied that they will continue working for bank until their retirement (see Figure 6.26 and Table 6.32). According to Hofstede (1980) in high-uncertainty avoidance countries, people more worry about the future as compared to low-uncertainty avoidance countries.

It was not possible to find any relationship between sex and responses to various questions because there are few women in the sample. This is also in accordance with the findings of Hofstede (1980) that in high-uncertainty avoidance countries there are only a few women in more qualified and better-paid jobs.

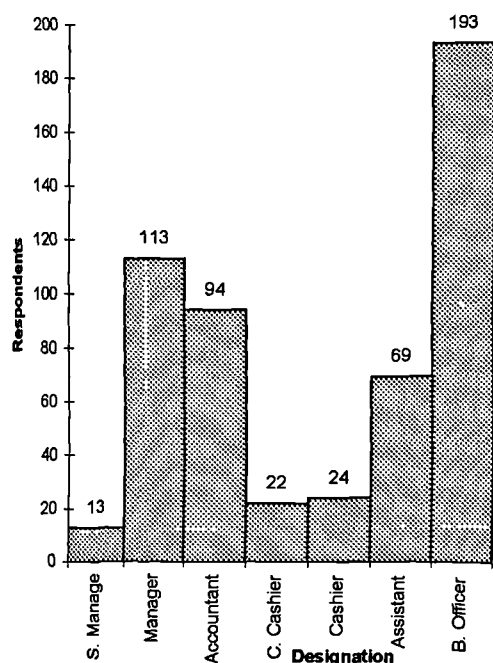


Figure 6.21 Respondents according to their positions

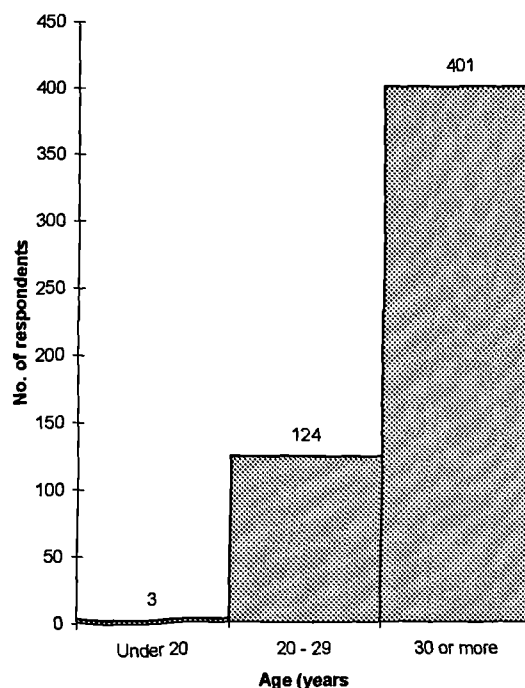


Figure 6.22 Respondents according to their age

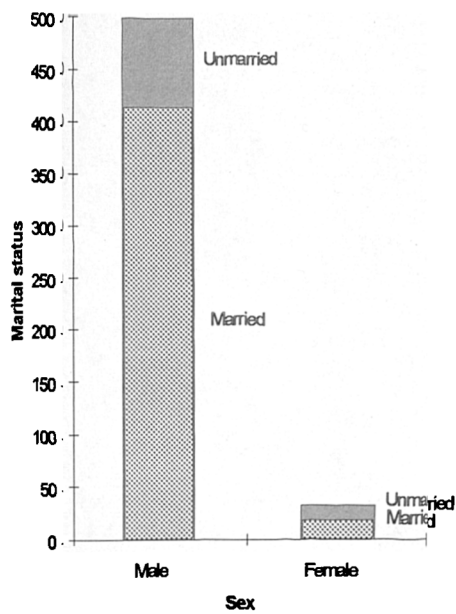


Figure 6.23 Respondents according to their sex and marital status

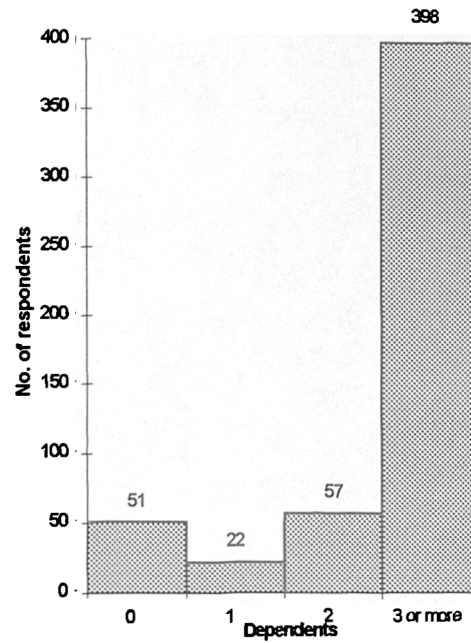


Figure 6.24 Respondents according to their dependants

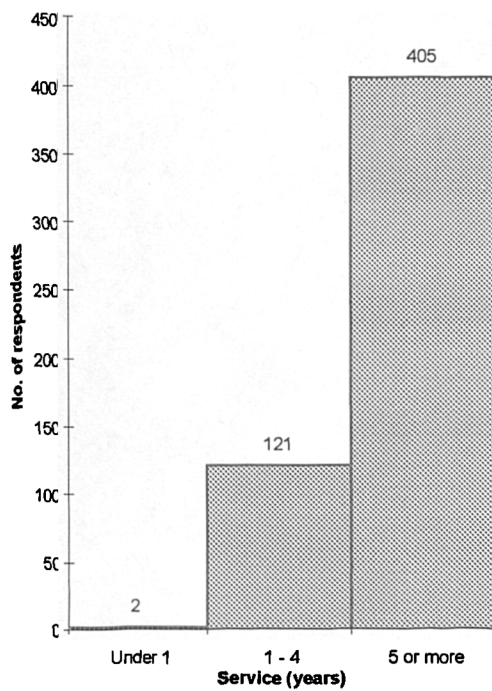


Figure 6.25 Respondents according to their service in the bank (years)

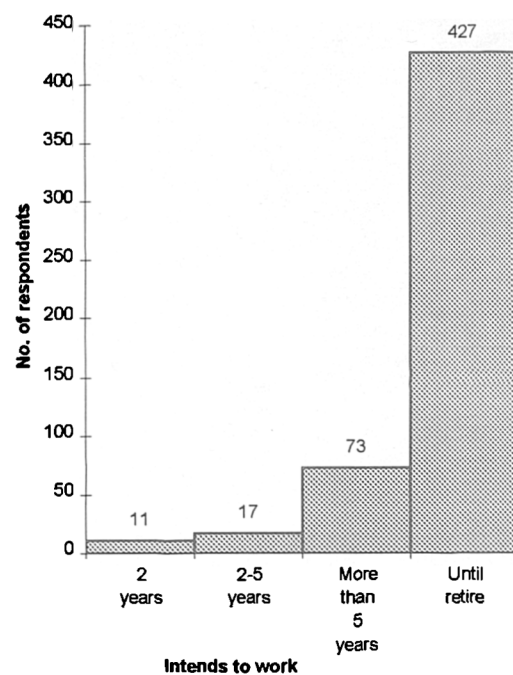


Figure 6.26 Respondents according to their intention to work for this bank

37. Designation	%
Senior Managers	2.46
Managers	21.40
Accountants	17.80
Chief Cashiers	4.18
Cashiers	4.54
Assistants	13.07
Bank Officers	36.55

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.27 Respondents according to their position in the bank

Age of respondents	Under 20 %	20 - 29 %	Over 29 %
No. of respondents	0.57	23.48	75.95

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.28 Respondents according to their age (years)

34, 35. Respondents' sex and marital status	Male %	Female %	Total %
Married	78.22	3.60	81.82
Unmarried	15.91	2.27	18.18
Total	94.13	5.87	100

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.29 Respondents according to their sex and marital status

36. Number of dependents	None %	1 %	2 %	3 or more %
No. of Dependents	9.66	4.17	10.79	75.38

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.30 Respondents according to their number of dependants

Service in bank	Less than 1 %	1 - 4 %	More than 4 %
No. of respondents	0.38	22.92	76.70

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.31 Respondents according to their service (years)

Respondents intention to work for this bank.	%
1. 2 years at the most	2.08
2. From 2 to 5 years	3.22
3. More than 5 years	13.82
4. Until retire	80.88

Total number of respondents = 528

Table 6.32 Respondents according to their intention to work for this bank

6.6 Summary

This chapter has analysed and presented the quantitative findings about the organisational culture of NBP. A summary of the main findings is as follows.

• National Culture

The Subsection 6.3.1 shows that the impact of this factor is high-power distance where employees are reluctant to disagree with their boss. Hence, a high-power distance is clearly shown in the responses to the questionnaire-based survey from Pakistan. Moreover, the employees generally prefer to do something they are used to rather than something that is different or new (uncertainty avoidance culture). Whereas the organisational culture of NBP in the UK comprise a mixture of both Pakistani and UK national cultures (see Subsection 6.3.1, discussion on the UK data). Overall, high-power distance culture is also supported by a mean score which is 4.0 (see Table 6.26). It shows that the influence of national culture on NBP is very autocratic (high-power distance).

- **Influence of a Dominant Leader**

The Subsection 6.3.2 shows that the influence of a dominant leader is “high”, type of influence is “very autocratic”, and the source of influence is due to his/her “position” in the bank. If an employees took a complaint to a person higher than his or her own boss then he or she would suffer later on for that. The response from UK indicate that the influence of the dominant leader is due to his/her expertise and not the position of the leader, which indicates an influence of the local national culture, that is, a low-power distance culture (see Subsection 6.3.2, discussion on UK data). Overall, Table 6.26 shows that the mean score of this factor (influence of a dominant leader) is 4.33, which shows a autocratic culture.

- **Company History and Traditions**

The Subsection 6.3.3 shows that the influence of company history and traditions is “strong”, “stable” and “conservative” which represent an “autocratic culture”. There is no freedom in NBP to challenge traditional ways of doing things. There are some traditions which have been followed for a long time. This autocratic culture is shown in the responses (see Subsection 6.3.3). The mean score of this factor (company history and traditions) is 3.67 which also indicates an autocratic culture (see Table 6.26).

- **Technology Products and Services**

The Subsection 6.3.4 shows that the influence of technology as perceived by employees in Pakistan is “medium”, whereas the responses from the UK indicate a high influence of this factor. The mean score of this factor is 3 (see Table 6.26) which also indicates a medium impact of this factor.

- **The Industry and its Competition**

The Subsection 6.3.5 shows that the economic environment of NBP can change rapidly and is predictable. Although it shows that the impact of this factor is “dynamic” and “predictable” but during the observations (see Chapter 7) it was seen that employees tend to focus on “how they do” things rather than “what they do.” As such this prevailing

culture gives importance to the “quantity” of work and not the “quality” of work (see Subsection 6.3.7). The mean score for industry and its competition is 4.0, which indicates that the economic environment of NBP can change rapidly and is predictable (see Table 6.26). There is a need to further investigate this in the form of other research project. The data from the UK were not significant, hence not discussed.

Customers

The Subsection 6.3.6 shows that the customer always comes “first” and the number of customers are “large” in Pakistan and reasonable in the UK. The number of customers of NBP in the UK is reasonable, perhaps because the competition of NBP with local banks, which are providing more facilities to their customers as compared to NBP, for example, ATMs and credit cards. The mean score for customers is 4.5, which indicates a large amount of customers (see Table 6.26).

• Company Expectations

The Subsection 6.3.7 shows that company expectations are high. The performance of an employee is evaluated mainly on efforts or output. There is a contradiction in what is expected and accepted in the bank. The bank has a slogan regarding the importance of the customer or clients, but in main and ordinary branches they (customers) are seen as unimportant. The employees strive to meet the criterion of both evaluation and rewards instead of quality of work. The mean score of this factor is 3.40 (see Table 6.26) which also support that company expectations are high and performance of an employee is evaluated on efforts or output.

• Computerised Information and Control Systems

The Subsection 6.3.8 shows that computerised information and control systems are “very mandatory” (necessary) for NBP. All the respondents (both from the Pakistan and the UK) are aware of the importance of computerised information and control systems for the bank. The respondents believe that computers can increase efficiency and accuracy and that computers are very useful to this bank. The mean score of this factor is 5.0 which

indicates that computerised information and control systems are mandatory (necessary) for this organisation (see Table 6.26).

- **Legislation**

The Subsection 6.3.9 shows that this factor neither constrains nor promotes the business of NBP, and the organisational and employee stance is strict adherence to legislation. The mean score of this factor is 3.0 which indicates a strict adherence to the law of the country (see Table 6.26). The data from the UK were not significant, hence not discussed for this factor.

- **Procedures and Policies**

The Subsection 6.3.10 shows that the influence of procedure and policies on the bank constrains and the organisational stance is strict adherence to the procedures and policies. This trend is also supported by the responses from the UK. Procedures and policies are necessary as guidelines to help employees do a consistently good job for their organisation, but if procedures and policies are implemented rigidly as shown in responses, then employees are deprived of the authority to act promptly in different situations. The strict adherence to procedures and policies indicates a high-uncertainty avoidance culture where company rules should not be broken even for pragmatic reasons (Hofstede, 1980). The mean score of this factor is 3.0 (a maximum score in the category, as previously discussed) which also supports the above discussion (see Table 6.26).

- **Rewards System and Measurement**

The Subsection 6.3.11 shows that rewards are few and rigid (see Subsection 6.3.11). The employees of NBP are not satisfied with them. The main criterion for giving rewards is “output” or carrying out one’s “assigned role or job” The mean score of this factor is 3.3 (see Table 6.26) which indicates that rewards are few and rigid. The data from the UK were not significant for this factor, hence not discussed here.

- **Organisation and Resources**

The Subsection 6.3.12 shows that the availability of resources is predictable and that these resources are insufficient, see Subsection 6.3.12. In this case the mediocre performance becomes the norm of an employee. The mean score of this factor is 3.0 (see Table 6.26) which also support above findings.

- **Goals, Values and Beliefs**

The Subsection 6.3.13 shows that the respondents are in the opinion that well thought out decisions are usually made by groups, whereas presently these are taken by managers individually. The employees attitude is unquestioning, conservative and they prefer quantity over quality of work. This subsection shows that the bank has uncertainty-avoidance culture, where employees generally prefer to do something they are used to, rather than something that is different or new. The bank has a caring culture where it assumes a broad responsibility for its members. The customer always comes first in the bank but the employees are evaluated and rewarded on the output instead of quality of work or customers' satisfaction. The mean score of this factor is 3.5 (see Table 6.26) which also supports above findings.

From the above discussion it can be concluded that the organisational culture of NBP is: high-power distance, uncertainty avoiding, non-consulting, non-compromising, unquestioning, individual decisions by the managers, few and rigid rewards system, high company expectation, strict adherence to legislation, strict adherence to procedures and policies, mandatory computerised information and control systems, predictable but insufficient resources, and that employees prefer quantity over qualitative of work and a process culture ("how to do" and not "what to do"). This assessment of NBP's organisational culture is further supported by qualitative data and analysis discussed in Chapter 7.

However, NBP's organisational culture in the UK branches is slightly different from the branches of NBP in Pakistan. The UK branches' organisational culture is different in the following respect.

- A low-power distance (see Subsections 6.3.1 and 6.3.2)
- Influence of a dominant leader is due to his expertise (see Subsection 6.3.2)
- Low-uncertainty avoiding (see Table 6.39)
- More importance of customers (see Table 6.39)
- Preference of quality over quantity of work (see Subsection 6.3.7)

Overall, the organisational culture in the UK branches shows a mixture of both the Pakistani and the UK cultures within the organisational culture of NBP. This mixture of cultures within the UK branches is further discussed and considered in Chapter 8. Qualitative analysis (by the use of grounded theory) of data to cross validate the qualitative analysis forms the subject of Chapter 7.

Chapter Seven

QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS OF DATA REGARDING NBP'S ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

7.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 has presented quantitative analysis and interpretation of data collected through a questionnaire-based survey for assessing the organisational culture as perceived by employees of NBP. This chapter presents the qualitative analysis and interpretation of data collected through interviews and observations primarily to strengthen the validity of the results that emerged from the quantitative analysis (see Chapter 6). Grounded Theory (see Chapter 5) is used for qualitative analysis. A general discussion regarding NBP's organisational culture with reference to the religion of the majority of the people of Pakistan (Islam) is also part of this chapter.

The structure of this chapter is as follows. Section 7.2 describes the process and results of coding NBP data. A general discussion regarding NBP's organisational culture is then given in Section 7.3. Section 7.4 provides cross validation of data and analysis. Finally, a brief summary of this chapter and some concluding remarks are given in Section 7.5.

7.2 Coding Procedures Within NBP

7.2.1 Open Coding Within NBP

During the interviews and observations (see Subsection 5.3.3 for outlines of the interviews and Appendix D for a sample of transcripts) at the NBP both at the Pakistan and UK branches, some concepts were conspicuous and these have provided the direction for developing the concepts or categories in open coding. For example, almost all the respondents stated in the interviews that they do not like or accept change in their work. This gave rise to the concept of "resistance to change". The subordinates were afraid of annoying the managers by questioning or disagreeing with them. If a manager becomes

annoyed with any subordinate then he or she will not recommend his or her name for a special increment or promotion. This gave rise to the concept of “hesitate to disagree with managers”. During the observation it was seen that all the customers were not treated equally by the staff of the bank. For instance, it was seen that one customer was waiting for the attention of the staff members when they were busy taking tea. However, another customer entered the bank and was given prompt attention by the staff members. Also NBP has some corporate (model) branches for wealthy customers only. These issues gave rise to the concept of the “importance of the customer”. This process led to the development of a set of concept cards during open coding. Open coding was considered complete when new concepts were no longer being generated.

Based on the qualitative data collected during the semi-structured interviews and observations (see Appendix D), in total, 28 concept cards were initially produced. These are listed in Figure 7.1. The sample of actual concept cards developed in this research can be found in Appendix E. The concepts that were developed tended to be based on the behaviour, attitude and beliefs of the staff in NBP.

Working environment	Behaviour of subordinates with managers
Behaviour of staff with customers	Behaviour of managers with staff
Acceptance of good ideas	Behaviour of subordinates with each other
Hesitate to disagree	Resistance to change
Freedom	Care of staff
Procedures and policies	Evaluation of performance
Reward systems	Importance of customers
Decisions	Complaint against managers
Availability of funds	Importance of computer
Expectations by the bank	Heavy work load
Competition of the bank	Uncertainty avoidance
Bribery and personal relations	Punctuality of staff
Autocratic	Computer
Monetary risk	Traditions

Figure 7.1 Open coding - list of concept cards for NBP

7.2.2 Axial Coding Within NBP

In total, 19 categories of axial coding were produced for NBP from the open coding. These categories are given in Figure 7.2.

Axial Coding Categories	
Working environment	Rewards systems
Behaviour of staff with customers in ordinary branches	Behaviour of staff with customers in Corporate/model branches
Behaviour of subordinates with managers	Behaviour of manager with subordinates
Behaviour of managers with customers	Paternalism
Procedures and policies	Decisions
Resistance to change	Bribery
Importance of customers	Uncertainty avoidance
Reluctance to disagree	Suffer later on for complaint against managers
Autocracy	Position of the manager
Traditions	

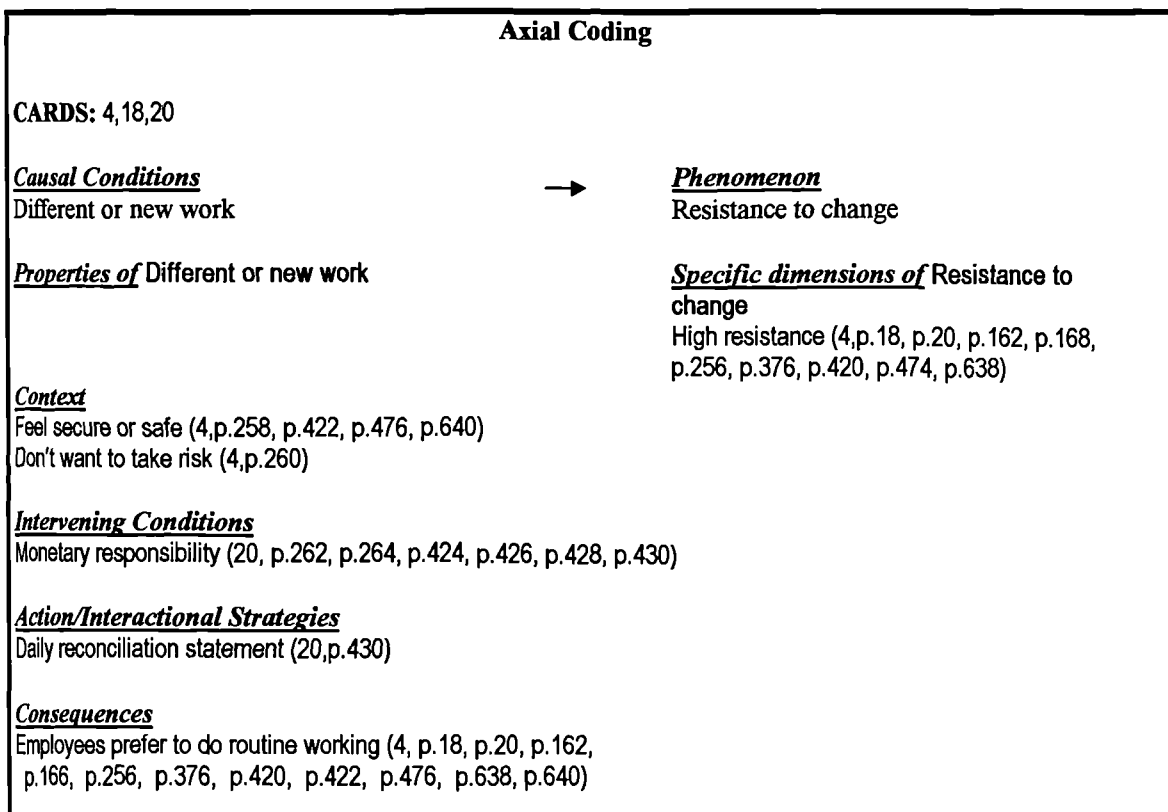
Figure 7.2 Axial coding index for NBP

The axial coding was developed using the paradigm model (see Figure 5.2) that shows how the sub-categories are related to each other and to a category (Strauss and Corbin, 1990; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). An example of an axial coding structure can be seen in Figure 7.3. The reference numbers of corresponding paragraphs in transcripts are also given, so that each occurrence of the elements in the paradigm model could be traced directly to the data. The derivation of Figure 7.3 is discussed in more detail in the remaining paragraphs of this section.

The central idea or phenomenon identified in Figure 7.3 is “resistance to change”. The event that has led to this idea or phenomenon is the resistance of staff regarding conduct of work that differs from the norm. Once the phenomenon and the causal conditions are identified, the properties and dimensions need to be determined. Causal conditions can be

found in the data by looking for phrases such as “when”, “while”, “since”, “because”, “due to” or by looking back through the data for events that seem to precede the phenomenon.

The particular context within which the action/interaction strategies are taken to manage the phenomenon is, in this case, feeling secure or safe and not wanting to take risks. Intervening conditions are the broader structural contexts that have a bearing on the phenomenon (Strauss and Corbin, 1990; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). In this example these conditions are related to monetary responsibility; and the employees (dealing with money) are personally responsible for any shortfall in the balance. This is why employees resist any changes.



(Note: numbers without p. represent card numbers whereas numbers with p. represent number of the paragraphs in transcripts, see Appendix E).

Figure 7.3 NBP's axial coding example - resistance to change

Every strategy that is taken in response to, or to manage, a phenomenon has some outcomes or consequences (Strauss and Corbin, 1990; Strauss and Corbin, 1998). In the

above example of “resistance to change”, the consequence is that the employees prefer to do routine work. More samples of axial coding can be found in Appendix F.

7.2.3 Selective Coding at NBP

The first step in the selective coding is to formulate a story line. This is the formulation of a story line that conceptualises a descriptive story about the central phenomenon of the study (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Figure 7.4 shows the story line that was developed for the organisational culture of NBP.

The main story is about the behaviour, attitude and beliefs of employees in the National Bank of Pakistan (NBP) for describing the organisational culture, how they behave to each other, to managers and customers, and how they conceive and respond to anything. This bank has two types of branches: ordinary and corporate branches. It has 27 branches outside of Pakistan, 7 of them are in the UK. The UK branches were also included in the study to assess the organisational culture of a Pakistani organisation outside Pakistan. The behaviour of managers to subordinates is autocratic. They do not like questioning and disagreement. The subordinates anticipate the managers wishes and accept them without question. The behaviour of managers is so authoritarian that if an employee took a complaint to a person higher than his or her own boss, he or she would suffer later on for doing so (he/she might not receive an increment or promotion). Hence employees are very submissive and generally reluctant to disagree with their managers. The behaviour of subordinates towards managers, however, is different in UK branches from behaviour in Pakistan. They are less submissive compared to their Pakistani counterparts. The culture of NBP is also high in uncertainty avoidance, so employees prefer to do routine work instead of different or new work. The financial responsibility of the employees seems to be the force motivating them to do routine work to minimize the financial risks. Rewards system in an organisation is usually for motivating the employees to work hard. It seems that employees of NBP are not happy with the present rewards system; according to them, the rewards are few and rigid as a result of which bribery and personal relations take place.

Figure 7.4 The story line of NBP

After describing the story line, the next step is to relate sub-categories to the core category using the paradigm model. The selective coding can be verified against the data to complete its grounding. The selective coding for NBP is displayed in Figure 7.5.

The core category developed was organisational culture. The organisational culture is triggered by the working environment in NBP. The working environment is reflected as high uncertainty avoidance, submissive behaviour of the subordinates with managers, individual decisions by managers as compared to collective decisions, and strong traditions of conducting business in the bank.

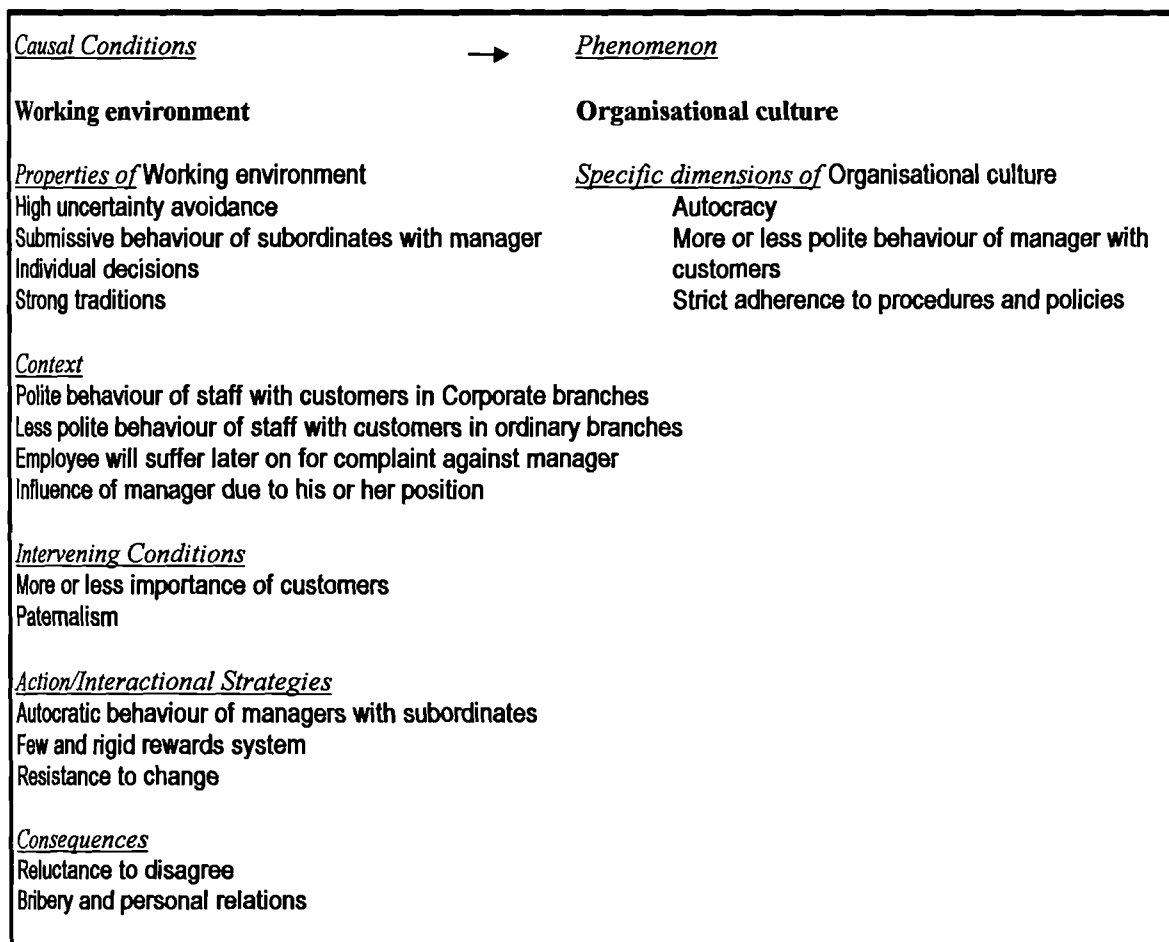


Figure 7.5 Selective coding in NBP

The explanation of the selective coding is given in the following paragraphs. This shows how the process of assessing the organisational culture of NBP as perceived by employees was achieved.

- **Causal Conditions**

The core category developed for NBP is “organisational culture”. The working environment of the bank influences this category. Employees’ behaviour, attitudes and beliefs are outcomes of the environment within which they work (Drennan, 1992).

- **Properties of the Working Environment**

The working environment consists of high-uncertainty avoidance, submissive behaviour of subordinates to managers, individual decisions by managers and strong traditions of the bank. The employees of the bank feel insecure about the future and tend to work for the bank until their retirement to avoid uncertainty of the future (employment stability). To avoid uncertainty and achieve the employment stability, the behaviour of subordinates to managers is very submissive in Pakistan compared to the UK. The subordinates in the UK are locally recruited. They do not have so much domestic pressure regarding employment stability as those employees in Pakistan. Hence, their behaviour is less submissive towards managers compared to those employees in Pakistan. Another aspect of the working environment is that decisions are usually taken by managers individually without consulting subordinates. This is in line with an earlier study by Hofstede (1980, p.119) that “in high-power distance countries managers are seen as making decisions autocratically and paternalistically”. As a result of autocracy the traditions in the bank are followed strictly and with no challenge or attempt to change them.

- **Specific Dimensions**

The specific dimensions of organisational culture are autocracy, less or more polite behaviour of managers to customers, and strict adherence to the procedures and policies of the bank. The behaviour of managers with customers varies according to the financial position of the customer and the type of branch. Managers are very courteous in corporate

branches because all the customers are wealthy, and much less so in ordinary branches because generally customers are not wealthy. There is a strict adherence to the procedures and policies of the bank. The organisation's structures, administrative procedures and work methods in organisations are copied from the British rule of the Subcontinent (the whole of India before the independence of Pakistan) and strictly followed in Pakistan, hence, a strict adherence to the procedures and policies of the bank.

- **Context**

The organisational culture exists in the context of the behaviour of staff to customers in corporate branches and in ordinary branches. The behaviour of staff is different in corporate branches from that in ordinary branches, in that they pay respect and provide an efficient service to customers in corporate branches, but not in ordinary branches. The customers at corporate branches are wealthy people: hence they are treated differently than the customers at ordinary branches. Another context is the employees' fear that they will suffer later on for any complaint against managers (which may result in receiving no special increments or promotion). Increments and promotions are given on the recommendation (by managers) in the annual confidential reports. As a result, the influence of the manager is due to his/her position in the bank and not due to his/her expertise.

- **Intervening Conditions**

There are two categories of intervening conditions; the importance of customers and paternalism. The importance of the customer depends on their financial position. As already stated, wealthy customers are considered to be more important than the rest. For example, there are separate branches (corporate branches) for the wealthy customers, where efficient service and more respect is accorded to them. Paternalism is also present in the bank. The bank takes care of all its employees in the shape of loans at lower-interest rates. It is just like a Pakistani domestic system where the father takes care of all his children. The loans at preferential rates are also available to bank employees in other countries (for example, UK), but in the UK, these are given to attract people to the jobs so

that there is less turnover of employees. However, in Pakistan, there is a high domestic pressure on employees for the continuation of their jobs. During the interviews, it was said by respondents that they want to work for the bank until their retirement to avoid uncertainty, hence, the provision of loans at preferential rates is for different reasons in the UK than Pakistan.

- **Action/Interactional Strategies**

To maintain the autocratic culture, the behaviour of managers is authoritarian: they do not like disagreement, complaints or questioning by subordinates. If there is any complaint by an employee then that employee will suffer later on for complaining (as already stated, by receiving no recommendation for special increments or promotions). There is high uncertainty about the future, hence, employees resist any change, and they generally prefer to do routine work instead of different or new work. The rewards system is used to encourage the quantity and quality of output of work in the bank. Rewards, in the shape of special increments and promotions, are granted to employees on the recommendation of their managers in annual confidential reports.

- **Consequences**

The most basic consequences of the actions and interactions are that employees are afraid to disagree with managers: they obey managers' orders without question. The more complex consequences relate to the rewards system. The rewards are rigid and few, and these are granted on the recommendation of the managers. This creates an environment in which bribery and personal relations are rife. The employees use unfair means (bribery and personal relations) to secure special increments or promotions instead of working hard.

7.3 General Discussion Regarding NBP's Organisational Culture

Managers' behaviour towards subordinates is authoritarian. Pakistan was a part of the Indian Subcontinent, before 1947 and was ruled by the British for a long period of time. The dominance of the managers may lie in the historical development of modern organisations in the Subcontinent. It seems that Pakistani managers have taken this

behaviour from their colonial rulers. Hofstede (1980, p.129) states that “modern organisations in colonial countries were set up by the colonial rulers. Even rulers like the British, who practised democracy and lower-power distance society at home, did not practice equality between themselves and the colonial populations”. The persistence of this behaviour with subordinates in the Subcontinent by the British can be seen in the following remarks of a manager in an English firm (Myers, 1960, p.169): “Ten years ago when I was first coming out to India, an old Indian hand got me aside and told me, ‘now just forget about these ideas of leadership you have been learning here in Britain. Out there if the workers don’t follow instructions, belt them. That will bring them around’”. In the Subcontinent the places of the colonial administrators were taken by local managers who adopted the existing management style (Kakar, 1971). The impact of this behaviour of managers in the Subcontinent can be seen from the following quote of Negandhi and Prasad (1971, p.128) “what is important for me and my organisation is not what I do or achieve for the organisation, but whether the Master’s (manager’s) favour is bestowed on me. This I have achieved by saying “yes” to everything the Master says or does”. It seems that the religion of the majority of the people of Pakistan (Islam) has no impact on the working behaviour of people in organisations. Islam promotes very polite behaviour toward others (Quran: Surah Nisa, Chapter 4, Verse 36). In Islam there is no superior and subordinate concept: all are equal (Abdalati, 1975; Hamid, 1997).

The behaviour of managers with customers varies according to financial position and relations with the customers. Again this is a concept that can be traced back to the tendencies of managers from the period of British rule in India, where wealthy persons had more status than non wealthy persons. For example, wealthy persons were appointed as “Numberdars” (official representatives of government and hence, more respectable persons than others) by the British government, whereas in Islam there is no such concept of more or less important persons on the basis of their wealth. In Islam, a person’s status is determined by his or her piety (Quran: Surah Al-Hujrat, Chapter 49, Verse 13; An-Nawawi (1989), Riyadh-us-Saleheen: Chapter 6, Verse, 69). A pious person in Islam is one who is completely religious and has a greater fear of God (Abdalati, 1975).

The root cause of strict adherence to the procedures and policies of the bank has a link with the colonial rulers of the Subcontinent. The Subcontinent organisations are so influenced by the British models that organisational structures, administrative procedures and work methods are all faithful copies of the original British models (Kakar, 1971).

The behaviour of subordinate staff to customers varies according to the financial position of the customers. In corporate branches the behaviour of staff to customers is different from that in ordinary branches. It is the policy of the bank to provide polite, efficient and personalised services at corporate branches to attract wealthy customers. The behaviour of staff at ordinary branches is not so polite and efficient. The behaviour of staff, however, is different in the UK branches from that in the Pakistani branches. All the subordinates in the UK branches are from this country and have therefore been brought up in an environment where all human beings are treated equally so they behave politely with all customers. Another context is that each employee will suffer later on for a complaint against his or her manager. If an employee took a complaint to a person higher than his or her own boss, then he or she would suffer later on for doing so. Again this indicates the autocratic behaviour of managers which was discussed earlier in this section. Due to the autocratic behaviour of managers, subordinates in Pakistan are more submissive than in the UK. Pakistan is a high-power distance country. In high-power distance countries, subordinates learn that it can be dangerous to question a decision of the manager (Mulder, 1977). They learn to behave submissively. They do not learn to question the manager. In Pakistan people depend more on their jobs because no financial support is available from the government in case of becoming unemployed. Hence, employees are very submissive to managers in Pakistan. Therefore, they do not want to annoy their managers by disagreeing and losing the opportunity for special increments or promotion on the recommendation of the managers in their annual confidential report. The less submissive behaviour of subordinates in the UK relates to local culture. In the UK, however, people depend less on jobs, as, if they become unemployed, they are entitled to receive unemployment benefit. Hence, they may be less submissive compared to in Pakistan. It shows that the culture of the UK branches is a mixture of Pakistan and UK cultures.

The biggest outside intervening condition in NBP is paternalism. The domestic system is dominant in Pakistani culture where paternalism, a value fundamental to the Pakistani domestic system, emphasises the superiority of the parent over the child and the care by the parent. The same national culture is present in the bank in the shape of paternalistic behaviour by managers. This has a link with religion (Islam) where the head of the family (male member) is responsible and liable for the needs of, and for looking after, the rest of the family (An-Nawawi (1989), *Riyadh-us-Saleheen*: Chapter 36, Verse 120), but in Islam this concept has a different implication compared to paternalistic behaviour in the domestic system of Pakistan. In Islam paternalism is a symbol of love, affection and kindness (An-Nawawi (1989), *Riyadh-us-Saleheen*: Chapter 40 Verse, 313). In Islam everyone can question or disagree with any person or even with the head of the state without any consequences (An-Nawawi (1989), *Riyadh-us-Saleheen*: Chapter 66, Verse 6). However, the paternalistic behaviour of managers is authoritarian. Managers do not like questioning or disagreement. This paternalistic behaviour of managers can also be traced back to before the partition of the Subcontinent when paternalistic forms of authority relations were a dominant structure in the Indian context (Kakar, 1971). In paternalistic behaviour, the basic resource stems from paternal authority and rules of paternalism, or the authoritative superior tend to govern social and organisational activity (Jain and Dwivedi, 1990).

In Pakistan, the social set up is such where the male member of the family is responsible and liable for the earnings of the family. One member is earning and the rest of the family is eating. It has some link with the religion (Islam). In Islam also, males are responsible for earning (Quran: Surah Al-Nisa, Chapter 4, Verse 34; Abdalati, 1975) and females are responsible for housekeeping and looking after the children. The females cannot go out for work unless it is very essential for their living (for example, when there is no male member for earning) (Quran: Surah Al-Noor, Chapter 24). Hence, the earning member has a great responsibility for continuity of earning. This is the reason that employees want to avoid uncertainty and secure future stability.

Bribery or personal relations are prevalent because of the rewards system that are few and rigid. Those who are close to the managers are bestowed with all kinds of favours (Walsham and Sahay, 1997). It also has a link with the domestic system in Pakistan. Employees want to achieve more, by hook or by crook, for the living of their families.

The above discussion shows that religion (Islam) has least impact on the working behaviour of the people in Pakistan. The working behaviour of people is greatly influenced from the colonial and domestic system in Pakistan. Whereas, it appears that the working behaviour of subordinates in the UK branches is greatly influenced by the national culture of the UK.

7.4 Validation of Data

This section describes the validation of data collected to describe the organisational culture of NBP as perceived by its employees. The congruence of quantitative and qualitative data (questionnaire-based survey, interviews and observations) strengthens confidence in their validity. (Although, the questionnaire was prepared from a Pakistani perspective but it was tested at an English site which provided an impartiality of the questionnaire.) An example of the congruence of both quantitative and qualitative data can be seen in Figure 7.6 (see Tables 6.3 to 6.39).

Respondents' views	Questionnaire-based Survey (Quantitative)	Interviews (Qualitative)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rewards are few and rigid • Intention to work until retirement • Obey boss's orders without questioning • Resistance to change • Reluctant to disagree with boss • Uncertainty avoidance • Employee will suffer for complaint against boss 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 86.36% • 80.88% • 77.84% • 50.57% • 73.30% • 61.74% • 65.91% 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 100% • 100% • 96% • 100% • 95% • 80% • 80%

Figure 7.6 An example of congruence of data (quantitative and qualitative)

Figure 7.6 shows that two research approaches (quantitative and qualitative) yielded comparable results. It is unlikely that two research approaches would have been consistent if there had not been considerable validity in their findings (Boynton and Zmud, 1984). The findings of the quantitative analysis (see Section 6.3) and qualitative analysis (see Section 7.2) are comparable. Both quantitative and qualitative analysis show that the behaviour of subordinates in NBP is very submissive. The influence of a person in management is due to his or her position in the bank and there is no freedom in NBP to challenge traditional ways of conducting business. The customer always comes first in corporate and model branches whereas no such preference for customers exists in ordinary branches. Decisions are usually made by individuals (managers) and subordinates always obey managers' orders without any questions. The employees' target is to satisfy the requirements for quantity of work, and an employee will suffer later on for a complaint against his or her manager. Employees are not happy with the present rewards system, and employees are generally reluctant to disagree with their boss. They generally prefer to do something they are used to rather than something different or new. All the branches of NBP in Pakistan have this homogeneous culture, whereas the culture of the branches in the UK is more heterogeneous, in the sense that employees (managers and subordinates) behave differently to each other (see Subsection 7.3 for details).

However, one very surprising finding that came up during interviews and in the grounded theory analysis concerned bribery and personal relations as a criteria for giving rewards. This is due to the fact that employees are not fully satisfied with the present rewards system. According to them these are rigid and few. Because of the few rewards, only very few employees receive rewards on the recommendation of the managers, whereas the employees are under huge social pressure to fulfill the needs of rest of the family. Hence, employees want to achieve more even by unfair means. As a result, bribery and personal relations are abundant. An overall organisational culture of NBP is described on the initial conceptual framework prepared for this purpose (see Figure 7.7).

Factors found to influence organisational culture	Terms			
1. National culture	Very Autocratic Very Conservative Very Oppressive	<u>Autocratic</u> <u>Conservative</u> Oppressive	Democratic <u>Radical</u> <u>Caring</u>	V.Democratic V.Radical V.Caring
2. Influence of a dominant leader	Level of influence Type of influence Source of influence	: V.High : V. Autocratic : <u>Position</u>	<u>High</u> <u>Autocratic</u> Personality,	Medium Democratic Expertise, None
3. Company history and traditions	Very Weak Very Stable Very Conservative	<u>Weak</u> <u>Stable</u> <u>Conservative</u>	<u>Strong</u> Dynamic Radical	Very Strong Very Dynamic Very Radical
4. Technology, products and services	Dependence on Line of business	: High : <u>Service</u>	<u>Medium</u> Production	Low
5. The Industry and its competition	Market	: V.Stable : V. Predictable	Stable <u>Dynamic</u> <u>Predictable</u>	V.Dynamic Unpredictable V.Unpredictable
6. Customers	Potential influence of Level of customer orientation	: V.High : <u>High</u>	<u>High</u> Medium	Low V.Low Small
7. Company expectations	Demand on employees Nature Type	: <u>High</u> : Very Stable : <u>Efforts</u>	Medium <u>Stable</u> <u>Output</u>	Low Dynamic Loyalty, Quality
8. Computerised infor. and control systems	Desirable Mandatory	: Very Desirable : Very Mandatory	Desirable <u>Mandatory</u>	
9. Legislation	Type Organisational stance	: Constrains, : Guidance,	Empowering, <u>Adherence</u>	<u>Neither</u> Strict adherence
10. Procedures and policies	Type Organisational stance Employees stance	<u>Constrains</u> : Guidance, : Guidance,	Empowering, Adherence, Adherence,	Neither <u>Strict adherence</u> <u>Strict adherence</u>
11. Rewards system and measurement	Number Application Orientation	: Very Few : Very Rigid : Customers,	<u>Few</u> <u>Rigid</u> <u>Quality</u>	Many Flexible Role/Job, Too Many Very Flexible <u>Output</u>
12. Organisation and resources	Availability Predictable	: Very Predictable : Very Appropriate	<u>Predictable</u> Appropriate	Unpredictable Sufficient <u>Insufficient</u>
13. Goals, values and beliefs	Orientation Employee attitude type Orientation	<u>Individuals</u> : Apathy, : Very Conservative : Customers,	Team Questioning, Conservative quality,	or both <u>unquestioning</u> Radical <u>role/job</u> Output

Figure 7.7 Organisational culture of NBP as perceived by its employees

7.5 Summary

This chapter has discussed and described the grounded theory coding processes and the main results from the coding. A sufficient number of categories for axial coding was developed during open coding. A core category was developed in the selective coding, the category of organisational culture. All the phenomena chosen during the axial coding were linked in the selective coding. The depth of all the coding suggests that the data collected was productive enough for grounded theory analysis.

The organisational culture of NBP as perceived by its employees is autocratic. Managers' influence is high due to their position in the bank. They do not like questioning and disagreement. If an employee took a complaint to a person higher than his or her own boss, he or she would suffer later on for doing so. Hence, subordinates are very submissive and fear to disagree with managers. The importance of a customer in the bank is due to his or her financial position. There is strict adherence to the procedures and policies of the bank. The rewards in the bank are few and rigid. This is a case of why bribery and personal relations take place. However, NBP's organisational culture in the UK branches is slightly different to NBP's organisational culture in Pakistan. In the UK, it is: low-power distance, low-uncertainty avoiding, more importance of customers, less submissive towards managers, and quality assurance.

The qualitative data was compared with quantitative data. It was found that qualitative data was comparable with the quantitative data to some degree. Thus, qualitative analysis has strengthened the validity of the results obtained from quantitative analysis. In order to compare the NBP's organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology so that any mismatched and agreements between two can be highlighted, analysis of the Critical Success Factor (CSF) methodology forms the subject of Chapter 8.

Chapter Eight

ANALYSIS OF CRITICAL SUCCESS FACTOR METHODOLOGY (CSF) AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR CULTURAL ALIGNMENT

8.1 Introduction

In the previous two Chapters: 6 and 7, the quantitative and qualitative analysis of data regarding the organisational culture of NBP as perceived by its employees has been discussed and described using the framework developed for this purpose (see Figure 7.7). This chapter describes and analyses the culture that the Critical Success Factor (CSF) methodology accommodates, so that the culture accommodated by the CSF (a representative SISP methodology) can be compared with the organisational culture of NBP, and mismatches highlighted and agreements built upon. A set of SISP methodology factors (see Figure 4.7) was used for the intermediate representation of the CSF methodology, to break it down into elements, which were then related to the factors used in the initial conceptual framework. At the end of the research process, some recommendations are given for amendments in the CSF methodology and/or organisational culture to ensure cultural alignment.

The structure of this chapter is as follows. Section 8.2 analyses and describes the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology. Possible mismatches and agreements between two cultures (that is, the organisational culture of NBP and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology) are described in Section 8.3. Recommendations for cultural alignment between the two are given in Section 8.4. Finally, Section 8.5 provides a summary of this chapter and some concluding remarks.

8.2 Culture Accommodated by the CSF Methodology

The CSF methodology was analysed with the help of the set of SISP methodology factors prepared for intermediate representation of the culture accommodated by the SISP methodologies (see Figure 4.7), which could then be easily related to factors used in the initial conceptual framework. Overall, it appears that the CSF methodology accommodates a low-power distance culture. The CSF methodology is analysed in detail in subsequent subsections.

8.2.1 Origin of the CSF Methodology

The following three points were considered in this regard.

- **Culture of Country of Origin**

The CSF methodology was developed in the USA. The national culture of the USA is a low-power distance (see Hofstede, 1980, pp.104, 115 and 223). (Power distance is a measure of the interpersonal power or influence between boss and subordinates as perceived by the least powerful of the two, that is the subordinate (see Subsections 3.4.1 and 3.4.2).)

- **Culture of Organisations Where CSF Methodology Applied Successfully**

It was difficult to investigate the culture of various individual organisations where this methodology has been applied successfully because of time and financial constraints and little has been written about it that is publicly available. It can however, be assessed that this methodology has gained widespread popularity and has become an integral part of the approaches of leading consulting firms in the USA and the UK as is the case of Andersen Consulting and KPMG (Martin and Leben, 1989; Remenyi, 1991; Fidler and Rogerson, 1996). The CSF methodology has mostly been applied in organisations in the USA and the UK which are low-power distance countries. Thus, there is some evidence to suggest that the CSF methodology is more likely to be applied in low-power distance organisations.

- **Background of Developers**

The developers (authors) of this methodology are from the USA, a low-power distance country, and they themselves are unconsciously, or may even consciously, be influenced by the culture of the country in which they live.

8.2.2 Philosophy of the CSF methodology

The following two points were considered with reference to the philosophy of the CSF methodology.

- **Weltanschauung**

The weltanschauung (outlook regarding the employees of the organisation) concept of CSF methodology is participative. As mentioned by Boynton and Zmud (1984, p.87) “CSF methodology facilitates a structured, top-down analysis or planning process”, whereas, Martin and Leben (1989, p.200) state “interviews should progress from the lowest-level managers to the highest level”. This top-down or bottom-up approach to CSF is not significant for this research because both top-down and bottom-up approaches involve employees’ participation.

- **Mental Construct**

This methodology does not focus solely on top management. It is clear from the working version of this methodology by Martin and Leben (1989, p.203) that “management should be ready for a vigorous discussion of what can make the company succeed. The debate is often heated and ultimately differing individual perspectives and desires emerge.” This reflects a compromising culture. This view is also supported by Edwards et al. (1991 p.74) as “CSFs can be established by a group process”. Clearly, the mental construct of this methodology is the participation of all levels of employees.

8.2.3 Structure

The two points: phased and iterative process, are considered with reference to the structure of the CSF methodology. This methodology facilitates a structured, top-down analysis and planning process (Boynton and Zmud, 1984).

- **Phased**

CSF methodology may be applied to the organisation as a whole or to individual departments or functions. The results of CSF exercises for parts of the organisation are sometimes referred to as lower level CSFs.

- **Iterative Process**

This methodology is an iterative process. This allows an evolving design to be continuously examined for validity and completeness (Boynton and Zmud, 1984). This view is also supported by Martin and Leben (1989, p.206) “critical success factors, and their associated IS and decision-support systems become a vital part of the ongoing process of management.” Hence consideration of these factors should be an ongoing input to the top management planning process (Edwards et al., 1991). A key part of the methodology for CSF analysis is a top management focusing workshop. The focusing workshop may be held not once, but periodically to review the CSFs and update them as appropriate. Reviewing the critical assumption set regularly can provide an early warning that a change has occurred and that the CSFs need modification.

8.2.4 Activities of the CSF Methodology

The following four points were considered regarding the activities of the CSF methodology.

- **Participative**

The CSF methodology based on participative culture in the organisation; and all the staff members take part in meetings (Boynton and Zmud, 1984; Shank and Boynton, 1985; Edwards et al., 1991). According to Fidler and Rogerson (1996) the strategy workshop provides the opportunity for senior management to discuss fully the findings and arrive at a consensus view.

- **Consultative**

This methodology creates a culture of a consultative nature. Remenyi (1991), states the CSF method involves a series of personal interviews. Thus implicit individual CSFs are encapsulated in explicit organisational CSFs.

- **Fact-gathering**

The fact-gathering approach involves interviewing managers from different levels in the organisational hierarchy (Boynton and Zmud, 1984; Fidler and Rogerson, 1996). The interview process is similar to any systems analysis fact-finding interview activity. Detailed discussion of the CSFs that are gathered follows a top management review workshop. The resulting CSFs are consolidated to form a collective set of CSFs for the whole organisation.

- **Confrontational or Compromising**

This methodology creates a compromising culture as stated by Martin and Leben (1989 p.205) in that “desires emerge”. Top management consensus about the CSFs is achieved in top management meeting. Although there is a possibility of heated debate during meetings, the final result is a compromised set of CSFs, compromise is an essential feature of the philosophy of the CSF methodology.

8.2.5 Participants in SISP Team

The following two points were considered regarding participants in the SISP team.

- **Ownership**

The active involvement of a key member of top management is solicited. It is extremely important that top management agrees to give full support, as top management support is essential for the success of CSF methodology (Neumann, 1994).

- **Involvement: External or Internal**

According to Martin and Leben (1989, p.198) often the best arrangement is a two-person team in which one member is an external consultant skilled at the CSF analysis process, and the other is an internal analyst who will maintain the CSF model when the external consultant has gone. They should have as deep as possible an understanding of the industry, the enterprise, and the jobs of the executives they interview. A concept of team work needs to be present.

2.6 Sensitivity or Applicability: Desirable/Mandatory

The applicability of the CSF methodology is clear for the following reasons.

- According to Martin and Leben (1989, p.185) “CSF analysis is extremely valuable in enabling an organisation to be managed better, independently of its use in building better computer systems.” The CSF concept is used as an aid in IS planning (Bullen and Rockart, 1981). It helps IS planners to identify critical information and get it to executives who need it, along with appropriate decision-support tools and resources. It helps in the planning and prioritising of the decision-support systems that must be built.
- Due to both the internal and external foci of the methodology (Boynton and Zmud, 1984), as the environmental factors of the enterprise change, CSFs of the enterprise also change (Rockart, 1982). The methodology enables these changes to be tracked and the CSFs to be redefined.
- CSFs can be used long before the requisite IS can be built. They improve human control mechanisms and cause an organisation to focus on what is most critical. With them, the allocation of resources can be improved, including the allocation of executives’ time.

8.2.7 Change

The following two points were considered regarding change by the CSF methodology.

- **Conservative or Steady Change**

This methodology does not support steady change regarding the implementation of the CSFs. There is a need to implement CSFs immediately because over the passage of time CSFs might change. After the implementation obviously there will be incremental progress.

- **Radical**

CSF creates a radical change. According to Martin and Leben (1989, p.205) “When the CSFs of top management are identified, it is desirable that these should be employed immediately. After the critical decisions are identified it is desirable to build a decision support system as quickly as possible. When executive IS or decision support systems are planned, prototypes should be created quickly.” Results from the CSF interviews are immediately useful. They can be used before the requisite IS is built.

8.2.8 Quality Assurance

CSF methodology promotes quality assurance which is clear from the following discussion.

- This methodology promotes quality, as the ability to provide high-quality services and products is usually a major CSF for all organisations (Bullen and Rockart, 1981).

8.2.9 Resources

The following point was considered regarding the resources.

- **Predictable or Unpredictable**

The CSF methodology requires relatively few resources (Martin and Leben, 1989; Fidler and Rogerson, 1996). Since the entire process of CSF analysis is planned, the resources needed for it are predictable.

8.2.10 Focus

The focus of the CSF methodology is both internal and external (see second paragraph of Subsection 8.2.6). Boynton and Zmud (1984, p.91) state that “the CSFs can be thought of as representations of those important external or internal conditions that permeate the organisation’s environment.”

- **Internal**

The internal focus of the methodology can be related to actions that can be taken within the organisation, such as human resource development, improving quality of services, inventory control, improving product quality or lowering costs. Once internal issues are highlighted then actions are more likely to be incremental.

- **External**

The external focus of the methodology can be related to factors in the outside world, such as company acquisitions or acquiring financing, competition, availability or price of a particular, critical raw material, the price of products in the market, and the attraction and retention of customers.

8.2.11 Computerised Information and Control Systems

Computerised information and control systems are mandatory (necessary) to support the outcomes of the CSF methodology due to the following reasons.

- Martin and Leben (1989, p.385) state that “computers can turn CSF analysis into a control mechanism that pervades the whole enterprise and enables business strategy planning to be translated into strategic information planning.”
- The CSF approach requires coordination of pieces of information from multiple data sets that are widely dispersed throughout the organisation. This situation argues heavily for computer implementation of data base systems that facilitate accessing multiple data sets (Rockart, 1979).

3.2.12 Technology, Products and Services

The influence of technology, products and services on the organisational culture is important (see Section 3.6: technology, products and services for detail). In this section, it is related to the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology.

- The influence of technology, products and services on organisational culture is specific to a given organisation. When considering cultural accommodation of a SISP methodology one is concerned with a generic rather than a specific perspective. For this reason it seems inappropriate to include the organisational specific factor of technology, products and services in defining cultural accommodation of methodologies.

The culture accommodated by the CSF methodology is described (see Figure 8.1) using the initial conceptual framework. (The process used to relate the set of SISP methodology factors (see Figure 4.7) to the initial conceptual framework (see Figure 4.4) was already discussed in Subsection 4.3.2.) The possible mismatches and agreements between the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology and the organisational culture of NBP were explored. This forms the subject of Section 8.3.

Factors found to influence organisational culture	Factors applied for analysis	Culture accommodated by the CSF methodology
1. National culture	Origin: Culture of country of origin Culture of organisations where the CSF methodology applied successfully Philosophy: Weltanschauung Mental construct	Democratic Democratic Participative Participative
2. Influence of a dominant leader	Origin: Background of developers	Democratic
3. Company history and traditions	Change: Conservative/study change Radical	Radical
4. Technology, products and services	(See Subsection 8.2.12)	
5. The Industry and its competition	Focus: Internal External	Internal/ External
6. Customers	Focus: External: Competition, Customer, Other factors	High
7. Company expectations	Quality assurance	Quality
8. Computerised information and control systems	Desirable/Mandatory	Mandatory
9. Legislation	Sensitivity/Applicability	Mandatory
10. Procedures and policies	Structure: Phase Iterative	Phase/ Iterative
11. Rewards system and measurement	Quality assurance	Quality
12. Organisation and resources	Resources: Predictable/Unpredictable	Predictable
13. Goals, values and beliefs	Activities: Participative Consultative Fact-gathering Confrontational/Compromising	Participative Consultative Fact-gathering Compromising

Figure 8.1 The culture accommodated by the CSF methodology

8.3 Possible Mismatches and Agreements

This section discusses possible mismatches and agreements between the organisational culture of NBP and the culture which the CSF methodology accommodates. This discussion is based upon the analysis of the data from the questionnaire-based survey combined with other data sources (see Chapters 6 and 7) regarding the organisational culture of NBP, and the identification of the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology (see Section 8.2).

8.3.1 Autocratic (High-power Distance)

- The overall culture of NBP is autocratic, high-power distance (see Section 7.3) whereas the culture that the CSF methodology accommodates, is democratic, low-power distance (see Subsection 8.2.1).

8.3.2 Participation, Consultation and Compromise

- The second possible mismatch concerns activities such as participation, consultation and compromise. The CSF methodology is based on participation, consultation and compromise (see Subsections 8.2.2 and 8.2.4). In contrast, the organisational culture of NBP is non-participation, non-consultation and non-compromising and reflects the style of a high-power distance culture (see Section 7.3).

8.3.3 Individual Decisions

- The third possible mismatch is that CSF imposes a new style of work practice and requires independent actions which may directly conflict with the organisational culture of NBP, because subordinates and managers in NBP are culturally unprepared to accept a new authority relationship (see Section 7.3).

8.3.4 Uncertainty Avoidance

- The fourth possible mismatch relates to change. The CSF methodology accommodates a radical change culture, in other words a low-uncertainty avoidance

culture (see Subsection 8.2.7). In contrast NBP has a high uncertainty avoidance culture, where employees generally prefer to do something they are used to rather than something different or new, even if the new practices lead to an improvement in their task (see Subsection 7.2.3). Clearly there is a mismatch since high-uncertainty avoidance cultures exhibit emotional resistance to change as compared to low-uncertainty avoidance cultures which exhibit less resistance to change (see Subsection 3.4.2).

8.3.5 Quality

- The fifth possible mismatch is quality assurance. The CSF methodology supports quality of work (see Subsection 8.2.8), in contrast, the culture of NBP does not support quality, rather it supports quantity of work in general (see Section 7.3).

8.3.6 Focus

- The sixth possible mismatch concerns focus. The CSF methodology supports both internal and external foci. Its external focus is on competition, price and customers (see Subsection 8.2.10). In the NBP overall there is less external focus. There is a little external focus in corporate branches and no external focus in ordinary branches (for example, in relation to the importance of customers and competition with other banks). In the UK almost all other banks have ATMs, whereas no such facility is provided by NBP to its customers. Hence the number of customers in the UK is very few. Only Pakistanis (businessmen and individuals) who have to make payments or send money to Pakistan are customers of the UK branches.

8.3.7 Conservative

- The seventh possible mismatch is conservative verses radical change. The organisational culture of NBP supports conservative culture (see Section 7.3). In contrast, the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology supports radical change (see Subsection 8.2.7).

8.3.8 Resources

- The eighth possible disagreement relates to resources. Demand on resources is predictable in both (see Subsections 6.3.12 and 8.2.9), albeit for different reasons (planning vs. central control). Specifically, the entire process of CSF analysis is planned, hence the resources needed for it are predictable. However, in NBP, there is a central control (autocratic), hence no one takes an initiative to do or demand new things. Resources are therefore also predictable in NBP.

8.3.9 Top-down Approach

- The ninth possible mismatch is a top-down approach (see Subsections 7.2.3 and 8.2.3). Although both have a top-down approach, the culture of NBP is top-down due to the central control (autocratic) and the culture of the CSF methodology is due to its style of planning (see Subsection 8.3.8 for detail).

8.3.10 Computerised Information and Control Systems

- A possible agreement between the organisational culture of NBP and the culture accommodated by CSF methodology, relates to computerised information and control systems. In both, these are considered mandatory (see Subsections 6.3.8 and 8.2.11). Hence, a preliminary phase regarding the acceptance of the computerised information and control systems is already accomplished in the organisational culture of NBP. This is a favourable point in the adaptation of the CSF methodology.

8.3.11 Phases

- The second possible agreement is phased implementation. It is possible to implement CSF in phases (see Subsection 8.2.3). It is clear from the present set-up of NBP, regarding services to its customers through personalised banking (at corporate branches) and ordinary banking (at ordinary and main branches), that two different set-ups prevail in NBP. The different types of branches; that is, corporate, main and ordinary branches, have different types of arrangements for their business.

A summary of the comparison of the two cultures (that is, the organisational culture of NBP and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology) is given in Figure 8.2. Results from the comparison has led to the revision and modification of the CSF methodology and/or organisational culture of NBP. (There are many examples where organisational culture was changed for the effectiveness of the organisation, see Section 3.3 for detail). In the light of the comparison, a careful adaptation of the CSF methodology is required so that any possible conflict between the two can be avoided. It follows that the same is true for other organisations in Pakistan and in other countries, for the adaptation of SISP methodologies. (Indeed Calingo (1991) claims that a process must be tailored to fit the culture and conditions of a particular organisation.)

The identification of the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology, and mismatches between NBP's organisational culture and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology provides some proof of the usefulness of the initial conceptual framework, the set of SISP methodology factors and the overall approach undertaken to compare the two cultures.

Factors found to influence organisational culture	Organisational culture of NBP	Culture accommodated by the CSF methodology
1. National culture	<i>Autocratic</i>	<u><i>Democratic</i></u>
2. Influence of a dominant leader	<i>Autocratic</i>	<u><i>Democratic</i></u>
3. Company history and traditions	<i>Conservative</i>	<u><i>Radical</i></u>
4. Technology, products and services	Medium	(See Subsection 8.2.12)
5. The Industry and its competition	<i>Internal</i>	<i>Internal and <u>External</u></i>
6. Customers	<i>High (number of customers)</i>	<i>High (importance of customers)</i>
7. Company expectations	<i>Quantity</i>	<u><i>Quality</i></u>
8. Computerised information and control systems	Mandatory	Mandatory
9. Legislation	Mandatory	Mandatory
10. Procedures and policies	<i>Strict adherence</i>	<u><i>Guidance</i></u>
11. Rewards system and measurement	<i>Quantity</i>	<u><i>Quality</i></u>
12. Organisation and resources	Predictable (Central control)	Predictable (Planning)
13. Goals, values and beliefs	<i>Individual Unquestioning Non-consultative Non-compromising High-uncertainty avoidance</i>	<u><i>Participative Questioning Consultative Compromising Low-uncertainty avoidance</i></u>

Figure 8.2 Comparison of NBP's organisational culture and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology

Three alternatives were considered to address the situation regarding mismatches between the two cultures.

1. **Develop a SISP methodology that is appropriate to the culture of NBP. It appears less feasible because it is more difficult, time consuming and expensive to develop a new methodology than to modify/alter an existing methodology.** That is the reason that ready made SISP methodologies (generic as well as proprietary methodologies, see second paragraph of Section 2.4 for the detail) available in the market are popular among organisations instead of developing their own SISP methodology. For example, CSF methodology (a generic methodology, see Subsection 4.4.2 for detail) has been used with great success for IS strategy development in a wide number of organisations (Bullen and Rockart, 1981; Boynton and Zmud, 1984; Martin and Leben, 1989; Remenyi, 1991; Fidler and Rogerson, 1996; Robson, 1997; Glaister and Falshaw, 1999). The widespread popularity of the CSF methodology is due to its intrinsic conceptual simplicity and to the fact that CSF analysis requires few resources (Boynton and Zmud, 1984; Fidler and Rogerson, 1996). Mainelli and Miller (1988) reported that British Rail found VCA difficult to employ in their planning activities but found CSF to be beneficial. British Rail applied a ready-made methodology instead of developing their own methodology. Major international consultancy firms, such as, KPMG Management Consulting (seller of a proprietary SISP methodology) provide strategic planning for their clients (Fidler and Rogerson, 1996). The cost and time involved in the development of SISP is considerable. Consequently, there are a few organisations who have developed their own SISP methodology for strategic planning. It can be concluded that organisations do prefer to buy ready-made methodologies. That is, why ready-made methodologies are popular among organisations.

OR

2. **Choose a SISP methodology based on a good fit within the culture of NBP.** This is unlikely because in general the methodologies have been developed in western countries in particular environments, hence none will exactly match the organisational culture of NBP. As previously discussed, according to Hofstede (1984), trying to develop a system in one country and implement it in another is bound to be problematic since both national culture and organisational culture are likely to differ. Hofstede (1984, p.77), and Hofstede (1994, p.54) categorises the national culture of Pakistan as “high power distance” and the national culture of western countries, such as, the USA and the UK as “low-power distance”. Because the national culture of Pakistan is different to the national cultures of western countries (where SISP methodologies are developed), it is unlikely that an appropriate SISP methodology is available for NBP (a Pakistani-based organisation). Moreover, Madon (1992) argues that IS developed in developed countries implies cultural values that are fundamentally at variance with those of developing countries. Walsham and Sahay (1996) report that geographical IS for district-level administration in India failed due to the USAID experts trying to impose an approach developed in another country which was not appropriate to India (Pakistan was part of India, see Section 7.3). Hence, it can be concluded that a suitable methodology will not be available for NBP.

OR

3. **Choose a particular SISP methodology, such as CSF, and where appropriate, modify it to accommodate a particular culture or modify the organisational culture to suit the CSF methodology.** Waema and Walsham (1990) advocate that IS strategy formation is a process and its adoption must be supported by the organisational culture. Calingo (1991) supports the above argument by saying that a process must be tailored to fit the culture and conditions of a particular organisation. Indeed, Lyberras et al. (1993) specifically emphasise that where necessary, a SISP framework should be amended to fit specific cultural values.

Hence, any approach to IS may need to be modified according to the organisational culture. This appears less expensive and easier to achieve (see discussion at number 1) than the other two options. Hence recommendations are made to modify the CSF methodology and/or NBP's organisational culture to attain cultural alignment in Section 8.4.

8.4 Recommendations for Cultural Alignment

This section describes recommendations to resolve the issue of mismatches. The following options were available to ensure cultural alignment between the organisational culture of NBP and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology.

- 1. Alteration in the CSF methodology according to the organisational culture of NBP to resolve the mismatches.**
- 2. Change in the organisational culture of NBP to suit the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology.**
- 3. No alteration or change in the CSF methodology and the organisational culture of NBP for a particular mismatch.**

A summary of mismatches and agreements between the organisational culture as perceived by employees of NBP and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology is given in Figure 8.3 (for detail see Section 8.3). These mismatches and agreements are discussed one by one and recommendations are given for the adoption of the most appropriate option(s) (stated above) according to the nature or type of mismatch.

Mismatches and Agreements Between the Organisational Culture of the NBP and the Culture Accommodated by the CSF Methodology	
Mismatches	
1. Autocratic	2. Participation, consultation and compromising
3. Individual decisions	4. Uncertainty avoidance
5. Quality	6. Focus (internal or external)
7. Conservative	8. Resources
8. Top-down approach	
Agreements	
1. Computerised information and control systems	2. Implementation phases
2.	

Figure 8.3 Summary of mismatches and agreements

- 4.1 The first mismatch between the organisational culture of NBP and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology is autocratic vs. democratic, especially at the time of focusing meetings of the top management (see Subsection 8.3.1). The organisational culture of NBP is autocratic; managers like seeing themselves as benevolent decision makers (see Subsection 7.2.3). The culture accommodated by the CSF methodology is democratic where the debate in meetings is often heated and differing individual perspectives and desires emerge (see Subsection 8.2.2, mental construct). It is recommended that the first option (stated at the start of Section 8.4) regarding alteration in the CSF methodology to be adopted for cultural alignment. This mismatch can be avoided by not calling top management focusing meetings. The analyst after interviewing all levels of employees can, with the help of the top management (including the senior executive who championed the CSF project), prepare a list of CSFs for the organisation. This will not be a major alteration in the concept of the methodology. This view is supported by Boynton and Zmud (1984 p.93) in the case study of a financial service organisation (NBP is also a financial service organisation). According to them, “the senior executive who was championing the CSF project developed a list of personal CSFs that closely paralleled the final aggregation for the firm as a whole.” As already described that champion is a

person who is responsible for guiding the SIS project through the development process.

- 8.4.2 The second mismatch of the two regards participation, consultation and compromise (see Subsection 8.3.2), will also be avoided by adopting the suggestion given in Subsection 8.4.1. The organisational culture of NBP is non-participating, non-consulting and non-compromising (see Section 7.2). In contrast, the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology is participating, consulting and compromising (see Subsection 8.2.4). This conflict can be addressed indirectly. The analyst will conduct the interviews with employees at all levels of seniority hence indirect participation and consultation of all employees will be achieved through interviews. The focusing meetings of top management will not be conducted, and the mismatch regarding compromise can thus be avoided.
- 8.4.3 The third mismatch between the two is regarding decisions (individual vs. collective) (see Subsection 8.3.3). The CSF methodology promotes collective decisions whereas the organisational culture of NBP as perceived by employees shows decisions by top management only (see Section 7.2). It is suggested for the adoption of the third option (stated at the start of the Section 8.4) regarding no change or alteration in the CSF methodology and the organisational culture of NBP at the time of implementation of this methodology. Change in the organisational culture of NBP is not recommended because there will be great resistance by the powerful employees of the bank. Moreover, CSF methodology takes care of such situations (individual vs. collective decisions). As stated by the Shank et al. (1985) that there was a similar situation (individual vs. collective) in Financial Institutions Assurance Corporation (FIAC) when the CSF methodology was implemented. In FIAC, management decisions were made by the Chief Executive Officer or were centralized in a small group of individuals and communication between staff members was informal and infrequent (Shank et al.,

1985). Shank has further stated that the use of this methodology has narrowed the gap that previously existed between senior management and other staff members. Hence this mismatch will be addressed by the methodology itself.

8.4.4 The fourth mismatch between the two cultures is uncertainty-avoidance and resistance to change (see Subsection 8.3.4). The organisational culture of NBP is high-uncertainty avoiding and high-resistance to change (see Subsection 6.3.13). Conversely, the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology is low-uncertainty avoiding (see Subsection 8.2.7). It is recommended for the adoption of the third option (stated at the start of the Section 8.4) regarding no change in the CSF methodology and NBP's organisational culture. CSF methodology is itself aimed at partially establishing an organisational culture to support the change (Boynton and Zmud, 1984). This view is also supported by Shank et al. (1985) that in FIAC, uncertainty and rapid change were viewed as threats. After the application of the CSF methodology, they are seen as opportunities which FIAC can successfully exploit using its information resources. Senior managers seem to intuitively understand the thrust of the CSF methodology, and consequently, they strongly endorse its application as a means of identifying areas of importance that need attention (Shank et al., 1985). Furthermore, the CSF methodology usually generates a positive response. Once it is underway, there is less resistance especially when training materials are provided on the CSF methodology (Boynton and Zmud, 1984).

8.4.5 The fifth mismatch is regarding the quantity and quality of work (see Subsection 8.3.5). The organisational culture of NBP promotes quantity of work (see Section 7.2). In contrast, the CSF methodology accommodates quality of work (see Subsection 8.2.8). It is recommended for the adoption of the first option (stated at the start of the Section 8.4) regarding alteration in the CSF methodology. Although the full benefits of CSF methodology can only be achieved if the CSF methodology is fully implemented in both letter and spirit,

quality of work could be given a low priority (at an early stage of implementation) to ensure the culture alignment with the organisational culture of NBP. Use of the CSF methodology will gradually promote quality of work.

8.4.6 The sixth mismatch is regarding the focus (see Subsection 8.3.6). The organisational culture of NBP is mostly internally focused, whereas the culture accommodated by CSF methodology is both internally and externally focused (see Subsection 8.2.10). It is recommended for the adoption of the second option (stated at the start of the Section 8.4) regarding change in the organisational culture. Due to the increase in domestic and global competition, the survival or success of the organisation (NBP) will be at stake without an external focus. One of the important activities of the management of the organisation is to create and manage organisational culture (see third paragraph of Section 3.2). Change in the CSF methodology regarding an external focus is not recommended because it is against the interests of NBP.

8.4.7 The seventh difference between the two cultures is regarding conservative or radical culture (see Subsection 8.3.7). The organisational culture of NBP is conservative. Conversely, the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology is radical (see Subsection 8.2.7). It is recommended for the adoption of the second option (stated at the start of the Section 8.4) regarding change in the organisational culture of NBP. The survival or success of NBP will become difficult without the radical approach because of the rapid change in the technology and environment. As it was observed during interviews, NBP is facing great difficulties to compete with its counterparts in the UK because of its conservative culture.

8.4.8 The eighth difference between the two cultures is regarding resources (see Subsection 8.3.8). Although in both resources are predictable, in NBP these are predictable due to its central control. In contrast, in the case of the culture

accommodated by the CSF methodology, resources are predictable due to planning (see Subsection 8.3.8). It is recommended for the adoption of the third option (stated at the start of the Section 8.4) regarding no change or alteration in the CSF methodology and the organisational culture of NBP. After the implementation of the CSF methodology, the methodology itself will address planning vs. central control, and the culture accommodated by this methodology will gradually promote planning instead of central control.

- 8.4.9 The ninth possible mismatch between the two cultures is the top-down approach. Again although both cultures favour a top-down approach (see Subsection 8.3.7), the organisational culture of NBP is top-down due to the central control and the culture accommodated by the CSF is top-down due to planning. It is recommended for the adoption of the third option (stated at the start of the Section 8.4) regarding no alteration in the CSF methodology and the organisational culture of NBP. The change in NBP's organisational culture for this mismatch is not recommended because there will be a high-resistance to change by the powerful employees of NBP (see Subsection 7.2.2).

In the light of the above discussion and recommendations it is concluded that some alterations in the CSF methodology and/or in the organisational culture of NBP are needed to ensure cultural alignment between the two cultures for successful and effective use of CSF methodology in NBP. On the basis of the outcomes one way forward would be to:

- Not call focusing meetings (see Subsection 8.4.1)
- Participation and consultation of employees via interviews (see Subsection 8.4.2)
- Gradually introduce the promotion of collective decisions (see Subsection 8.4.3)
- Training materials on CSF methodology to be provided to employees (see Subsection 8.4.4)
- Low priority given to quality of work at an early stage of implementation of CSF methodology but gradually increase priority (see Subsection 8.4.5)

- Change NBP's organisational culture from internal focus only to internal as well as external focus (customers and strategy of other banks) (see Subsection 8.4.6)
- Change NBP's organisational culture from conservative to radical (see Subsection 8.4.7)
- Gradually promote resource planning (see Subsection 8.4.8)
- Gradually promote top-down planning instead of central control (see Subsection 8.4.9)

However, the organisational culture of NBP in the UK branches (which is a mixture of both the Pakistani and the UK national cultures) is less contradictory (see Section 7.3) with the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology, than the organisational culture in NBP in Pakistan. Thus, the CSF methodology can be applied to NBP's branches in the UK in the first instance (see Section 8.2.3). This view is also supported by Ward et al. (1990, p.89) that "it is more appropriate to perform SISP at unit level, rather than at overall organisation level". Even though the culture at the UK branches is nearer to the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology, it still requires a careful adaptation (some modifications, see Subsections 8.4.1, 8.4.2, 8.4.3 and 8.4.6) of the CSF methodology because the senior staff are seconded from Pakistan, and they represent Pakistani culture which is different to the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology.

8.5 Summary

This chapter has analysed the CSF methodology with the help of the set of SISP methodology factors (for intermediate representation of the culture), and has described the culture accommodated by this methodology with the help of the initial conceptual framework developed for this purpose (see Figure 8.1). Possible mismatches and agreements between the organisational culture of NBP and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology were highlighted via the initial conceptual framework (see Figure 8.2).

The analysis suggests that the CSF methodology accommodates: a low-power distance culture, low-uncertainty avoidance, individualism, participation, consultation, compromise and quality assurance. In contrast, the organisational culture of NBP is: high-power distance, high-uncertainty avoiding, decisions by managers only, non-participating, non-consulting, non-compromising and quantity assurance. Apart from some mismatches there were some agreements also between the two cultures. The mismatches between the organisational culture of NBP and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology require careful adaptation of the CSF methodology so that there is no conflict between the two cultures. Some recommendations are given for alteration to the CSF methodology and/or NBP's organisational culture to ensure cultural alignment.

There are less mismatches between NBP's organisational culture in the UK branches (see Sections 6.3 and 7.3) and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology (see Section 8.2) than with NBP's organisational culture in Pakistan. Moreover, CSF methodology can also be implemented in individual departments (see Subsection 8.2.3). This methodology is nearer to NBP's organisational culture in the UK branches, hence it is recommended for its implementation in the UK branches at first instance, which later on with experience and adaptation can be extended to branches in Pakistan.

Chapter 9 provides an overview of the research, a reflection on the research approach employed in achieving the research aims, an overview of what has been achieved within this thesis, and the contributions to research and any further work required.

Chapter Nine

CONCLUSIONS

9.1 Introduction

This concluding chapter discusses the key issues related to this research.

The structure of this chapter is as follows. Section 9.2 provides an overview of this research. Section 9.3 restates the research aims and relates the thesis to these aims. A brief review of the research process adopted and its suitability in achieving the research aims is examined in Section 9.4. The achievements reached by the research with respect to research aims are described in Section 9.5. The worth of this research is discussed in Section 9.6. Section 9.7 discusses some of the limitations faced during this research. A number of further issues arising from this research are discussed in Section 9.8. Final comments are presented in Section 9.9.

9.2 An Overview of the Research

Information is important, and hence IS are important for the well being of the organisation. SISP assists in the development of effective IS. The adoption of a SISP methodology provides support to undertake and complete SISP successfully. Whichever SISP methodology or combination of methodologies are chosen, they have to be well suited to the organisational culture. Thus, successful implementation of a given SISP methodology requires the necessary alteration(s) to that methodology if the culture accommodated by that SISP methodology is different to the culture of the organisation in which it is to be used. No previous research on the cultural sensitivity of SISP methodologies has been undertaken, thus paving the way for this research.

The current typologies for describing organisational culture do not provide a sufficiently complete classification of organisational culture (see Section 3.5). Moreover, these typologies are, in their current state, found ineffective for use in describing the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology. Therefore, it is difficult to explore the cultural mismatches and agreements that might exist. Hence an initial conceptual framework based on influential factors has been developed for systematically describing organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology, and for exploring the cultural mismatches and agreements between them.

Empirical evidence was collected regarding the usefulness of the initial conceptual framework. A combination of both quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection and analysis was used for the empirical work. The organisational culture of a case organisation (NBP) and the culture accommodated by a case SISP methodology (CSF) were ascertained and then described in terms of the initial conceptual framework. The quantitative analysis of the questionnaire-based survey has shown that the organisational culture of NBP is: high-power distance, high-uncertainty avoiding, conservative, decisions by managers only, subordinates very submissive to managers, less importance of customers, medium impact of computer technology, internal focus, non-participating, non-consulting, non-compromising, unquestioning, strict adhering to procedures and policies, inflexible, scarce in rewarding work, and preferring quantity over quality assurance. However, NBP's organisational culture in the UK branches is slightly different to that of NBP's branches in Pakistan.

The qualitative data collected through interviews and observations enriched the understanding of organisational culture and provided a cross validation to the quantitative data and results (see Section 7.4). Indeed, no differences were found during the validation process.

The analysis of the indicative SISP methodology, CSF, showed that this methodology accommodates a particular culture which is different from the organisational culture of

NBP. The CSF methodology was found to accommodate culture which is: low-power distance, low-uncertainty avoiding, radical, collective, both internal and external foci, participating, consulting, compromising, questioning, procedure and policies as guidelines and preferring quality over quantity of work.

The mismatches and agreements between the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology and the NBP's organisational culture have been highlighted (see Section 8.3). Some recommendations have been made for modifying the CSF methodology and/or organisational culture of the NBP to ensure cultural alignment.

9.3 The Research Aims Re-stated

The research aims as stated in Chapter 1 have been dealt with in preceding chapters as shown in Figure 9.1. These aims were to:

1. Develop an initial conceptual framework for use in the process of systematically describing the organisational culture as perceived by employees of an organisation and the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology.
2. Develop an approach as to how to:
 - a. identify any mismatches and agreements between the organisational culture as perceived by employees of an organisation and the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology.
 - b. articulate how a SISP methodology and/or an organisational culture might be altered to ensure cultural alignment.
3. Undertake an investigation of a case organisation and a case methodology using the developed framework and approach in order to illustrate their potential usefulness.

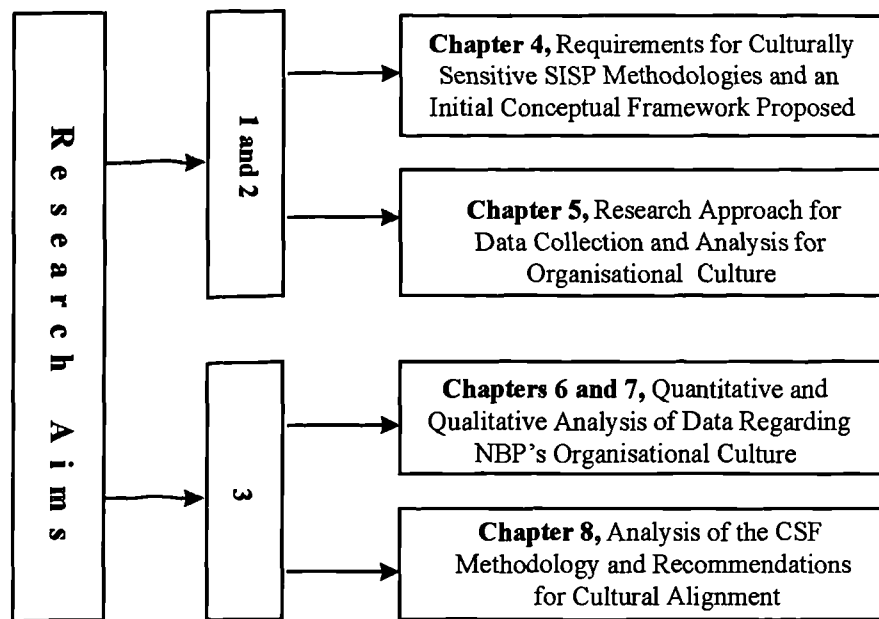


Figure 9.1 Thesis chapters and how each relates to the research aims

9.4 The Research Process

To achieve the research aims, an approach was developed which included several complementary methods and techniques (as previously described). The following points regarding this approach are worth noting:

- The literature review effectively highlighted the shortcomings of existing cultural typologies and pointed towards the need to combine previous research into an initial conceptual framework.
- The questionnaire proved to be an effective data collection instrument because it was carefully based on the initial conceptual framework and was statistically valid. Furthermore, it was piloted before being used in the full study. NBP provided a culturally rich empirical research environment.
- Interviews and observations enriched the researcher's understanding of the attitudes, behaviours and beliefs of the employees of NBP.
- The congruence of the resulting quantitative and qualitative data strengthened the confidence in their results.

- The quantitative analysis of data, based on odds ratio and Fisher's exact test, provided an excellent insight into patterns and trends of responses.
- The qualitative analysis of data based on grounded theory, provided a rich understanding of organisational culture in the NBP.
- The development of a set of SISP methodology factors for the intermediate representation of a SISP methodology was an effective solution to resolving the problem of how to identify the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology in terms of the initial conceptual framework.

9.5 The Research Achievements

An overview of the research achievements is given in Figure 9.2. This section describes in greater detail the research achievements with evidence of their usefulness with respect to the aims re-stated in Section 9.2.

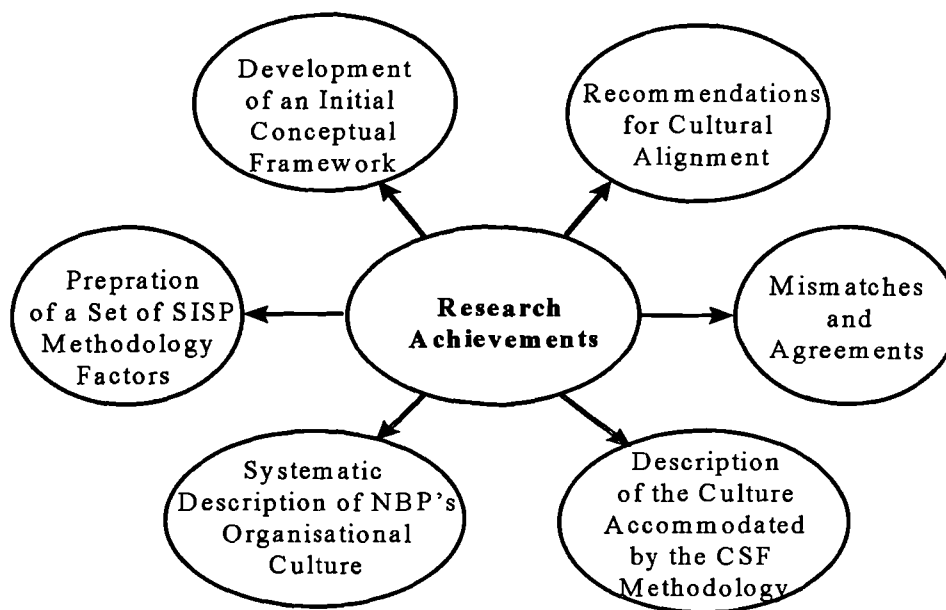


Figure 9.2 An overview of the research achievements

- One of the most important achievements of this research is regarding the development of an initial conceptual framework (see Figure 4.3). The validation (see Subsection 4.3.1), and successful description of both the organisational culture

of NBP and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology (see Figures 7.7 and 8.1) provide some evidence of the usefulness of the initial conceptual framework.

- Another important achievement of this research is regarding the preparation of a set of SISP methodology factors based on the vocabulary used by several authors in the development and explanation of the CSF methodology (see Figure 4.6). The set of SISP methodology factors was developed for intermediate representation of the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology, to break it down into elements that could then be related to the factors used in the initial conceptual framework. The successful intermediate representation of the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology with the help of this set of SISP methodology factors is evidence of its usefulness (see Section 8.2).
- The organisational culture of NBP and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology were compared (see Figure 8.2). This comparison identified mismatches and agreements between them. This achievement provides further evidence of the usefulness of the initial conceptual framework.
- This research provides comprehensive recommendations for modification of the CSF methodology and/or the organisational culture of the NBP to ensure cultural alignment between them (see Section 8.4). The cultural alignment will hopefully enhance the rate of successful implementation of the CSF methodology in the NBP and, as such, the successful implementation of effective IS.

To summarise, the research achievements provide a solid base for the use of the initial conceptual framework in the process of systematically describing the organisational culture as perceived by employees, and the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology. The results achieved have confirmed the usefulness of the initial conceptual framework and the research approach in identifying any mismatches and agreements between the organisational culture of an organisation as perceived by its employees and the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology. Furthermore, the results demonstrate how a SISP methodology and/or an organisational culture can be altered to

ensure greater cultural alignment between them, improving the chances of successful implementation of that methodology for the development of effective IS to improve the effectiveness of the chosen organisation.

9.6 The Worth of This Research

The continued strong interest in SISP (Earl, 1993; Doherty et al., 1999; James, 1999) and in organisational culture (Guest, 1992; Brown, 1998) indicates the importance of the topic. This investigation has made a significant contribution to the field of research (organisational culture and SISP methodologies). No other study has explored the particular issue of SISP cultural sensitivity and alignment. It has determined the extent to which mismatches between the organisational culture of NBP and the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology (CSF) could be avoided by alteration(s) to the methodology and/or the NBP's organisational culture, hence ensuring cultural alignment between them. This research provides a foundation on which to build investigations of organisational culture in the NBP, and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology. The following contribution have been made through this research:

- ♦ An initial conceptual framework was developed (see Figure 4.3). After a few further tests in other organisational settings, this framework should result in a generalised conceptual framework that can be used for systematically describing the organisational culture of any organisation, anywhere in the world. It would enable the management of an organisation to identify the prevailing organisational culture so that they could change it if necessary, to improve the effectiveness and position of the organisation. As already stated, Soft Systems Methodology (SSM) and Multiview methodology (see Section 2.5 for detail) also consider organisational culture but these methodologies are primarily for the development of systems and not for the strategic planning of IS.
- ♦ It is the first time that the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology (CSF) has been identified. It is not only an important contribution towards knowledge regarding the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology but also provides

solid evidence for the need to analyse other SISP methodologies for cultural sensitivity before their use.

- ♦ A set of SISP methodology factors (see Figure 4.7) based on the vocabulary used by several authors in the development and explanation of the CSF methodology was developed and used for intermediate representation of the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology. After further tests for the intermediate representation of the culture accommodated by other SISP methodologies, a generalised set of SISP methodology factors should result in that it can be used for intermediate representation of the culture accommodated by any SISP methodology.
- ♦ Based on the framework, a survey questionnaire (see Appendix B) was prepared to assess the organisational culture profile of a Pakistani-based bank, the NBP, as perceived by its employees. This questionnaire (possibly modified) could be used for ascertaining the organisational culture of other banks or even other organisations.
- ♦ The initial conceptual framework is better than existing approaches (such as, cultural web, typologies of organisational culture and factors that influence organisational culture) for classifying organisational culture because it provides a systematic and comprehensive description of organisational culture and, based on reported evidence (see 1st paragraph on page 60 and Sections 3.5, 3.7), incorporates the beneficial features of existing approaches whilst rejecting features found to be wanting.

9.7 Limitations

This section describes limitations of this study.

- Due to the financial and time constraints, only one organisation (NBP) was included in the study for assessing the organisational culture in Pakistan. However, the case study by a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods provides a vivid portrait of organisational culture in Pakistan.

- Due to the financial and time constraints, interviews and observations were conducted at 6 branches only. However, 559 responses (528 from Pakistan and 31 from the UK) to the questionnaire-based survey provided richness of data.
- The detailed documentation of most SISP methodologies tends to be confidential, and a proprietary property of consulting firms who are reluctant to divulge it to third parties. Thus, the researcher had to rely upon material available from literature in the public domain. The CSF methodology was found to be the most cited and was thus chosen as the indicative SISP methodology.
- The employees of the NBP were not very familiar with research work. As such some of the respondents were a little hesitant to answer questions. This was despite the clear statement in the questionnaire and verbal reassurance given during interviews that all the information provided would be kept confidential and used for study purposes only. However, two different data collection techniques have together provided sufficient data for cross validation and analysis of the organisational culture of the NBP.

9.8 Suggestions for Further Work

This research has investigated an important area within SISP which has, until now, been overlooked. Whilst a gap in the knowledge of SISP has been filled, there are further areas concerning the general usability of the framework which should be the subject of further work in the form of other thesis and research projects. The proposed initial conceptual framework and the set of SISP methodology factors should be tested in other organisations and SISP methodologies for more empirical evidence regarding their usefulness and applicability at large, but this is beyond the scope of the current research work. Figure 9.3 summarises future work for the generalisation of the initial conceptual framework and the set of SISP methodology factors. There is always room for improvement. According to an anonymous writer, “if a solution that does all is ever developed, then the journey will have ended, but it is not likely to end in the near term.”

- The issue of generalisability of the initial conceptual framework could be investigated through other case organisations, for example, different countries and different industry sectors.
- The issue of generalisability of the set of SISP methodology factors could be investigated through intermediate representation of the culture accommodated by other SISP methodologies.
- Trial of modified version of the CSF methodology could be undertaken in the NBP in order to identify any practical problems in using this version and to further verify cultural alignment.
- Some organisations who are using the CSF methodology could be investigated in order to understand further, and to describe, the culture of the organisations promoted by this methodology.
- The issue of generalisability of the enhanced CSF methodology for adaptation by other organisations in Pakistan could be investigated further.
- The difference between internal opinion and external view of employee's willingness to accept change in his/her work (see discussion on Q32) could be further investigated.

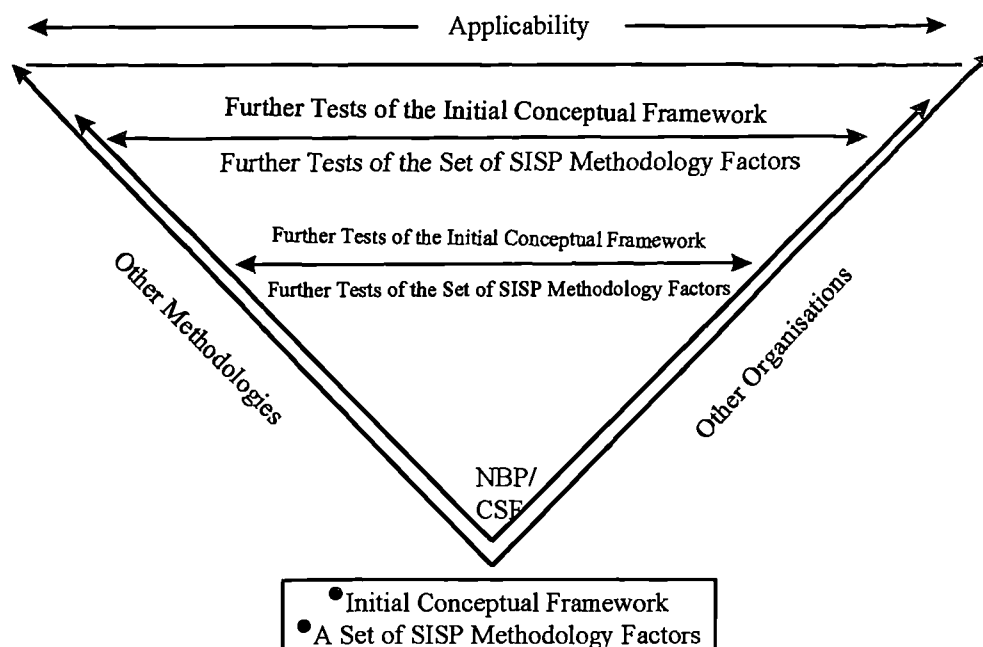


Figure 9.3 Fan diagram showing further work

9.9 Summary

It is clear from the literature review that organisational culture plays an important role in the success of IS within organisations. It is therefore, important to be able to consider organisational culture when planning organisational IS. This research has shown how it is possible to assess and systematically describe the organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a SISP methodology to explore mismatches and agreements between them. This has been done in the following ways:

- An initial conceptual framework was developed based on the factors found to influence organisation culture for systematically describing the organisational culture and the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology (see Figure 4.3).
- A set of SISP methodology factors (see Figure 4.6) based on the vocabulary used by several authors in the development and explanation of the CSF methodology was prepared for intermediate representation of the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology, to break it down into elements that could then be related to the factors used in the initial conceptual framework.
- The organisational culture of the NBP was assessed as an indicative example of the organisational culture in Pakistan (see Chapters 6 and 7).
- The CSF methodology was analysed as an indicative example of the culture accommodated by a particular SISP methodology (see Section 8.2).
- Mismatches and agreements were identified between the organisational culture of NBP and the culture accommodated by the CSF methodology (see Figure 8.2) by the use of the initial conceptual framework.

- Recommendations for modifications in the CSF methodology and/or organisational culture of NBP were made to ensure cultural alignment between them (see Section 8.4). As already stated this research focuses on organisational culture whereas organisational context is a broader term (see last paragraph on page 28).

This research has addressed the complex issue of organisational culture in SISP within organisations. It has clearly identified a viable approach to this issue. This is only the beginning. The approach needs to be further tested and then generalised for use in other industry sectors and other countries. It is hoped that future researchers will be stimulated by this thesis to take up the challenge. Only then can we look forward to a time when culturally aligned SISP will increase the likelihood of the successful development of IS within organisations.

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Appendix A

Existing Typologies Described Using the Consistent Vocabulary and the Factors Found to Influence Organisational Culture

**Framework for describing perceived organisational culture
(The Hofstede typology)**

Factors found to influence org. culture	Power Distance	Uncertainty avoidance	Individualism/Collectivism	Masculinity/Femininity
1. National culture	L: Very democratic/ democratic H: Very autocratic/ autocratic	L: Very oppressive H: Oppressive	C: Very caring/ caring I: Very democratic/ democratic	F: Very democratic/ democratic M: Very autocratic/ autocratic
2. Influence of a leader	L: Low, democratic H: High, very autoc. position	L: Low, democratic H: High, very autoc. position	C: High, very autoc. I: Low, democratic position	F: Low, democratic M: High, very autoc. position
3. Company history and traditions	L: Weak, stable H: Strong, stab/dyn conservative/radical	L: Weak, stable H: Strong, stab/dyn conservative	C: Strong, stab I: Weak, dynamic radical/conservative	F: Weak, stable M: Strong, stab/dyn radical/conservative
4. Technology, products and services	-	-	-	-
5. The industry and its competition	-	-	-	-
6. Customers	-	-	-	-
7. Company expectations	-	-	-	-
8. Computerised information and control systems	-	-		
9. Legislation	L: empowering/guid H: constricting/strict adherence	L: empowering/guid H: constricting/strict adherence	C: constricting/adher I: empowering/guid	F: empowering/guid M: constricting/strict adherence
10. Procedures and policies	L: empowering/guid H: constricting/strict adherence	L: empowering/guid H: constricting/strict adherence	C: constricting/adher I: empowering/guid	F: empowering/guid M: constricting/strict adherence
11. Rewards system and measurement	L: Flexible, few H: Rigid, many output	L: Flexible, few H: Rigid, many role/job	-	-
12. Organisation and resources	-	-	-	-
13. Goals, values and beliefs	L: questioning H: apathy L: radical H: conservative output	L: individuals H: unquestioning L: radical H: conservative role/job	C: team I: Individuals C: conservative I: radical	F: both M: apathy F: radical M: conservative

**Framework for describing perceived organisational culture
(The Harrison and Handy typology)**

Factors found to influence org. culture	The Power culture	The Role culture	The Task culture	The Person culture
1. National culture	Very autocratic/ autocratic	Very autocratic/ autocratic	Very democratic/ democratic	Very democratic/ democratic
2. Influence of a leader	High, position, autocratic	High, position, autocratic	High, expertise, democratic	-
3. Company history and traditions	Strong stable/dynamic conservative/radical	Strong, stable conservative	Weak, dynamic radical	Weak, dynamic radical
4. Technology, products and services	High/medium/low service/production	Medium service/production	High service/production	-
5. The industry and its competition	-	Stable predictable	Dynamic unpredictable	-
6. Customers	Low High/medium/low	Low High/medium/low	High medium/low	High medium/low
7. Company expectations	low, stable output	low, stable output	High, dynamic quality	-
8. Computerised information and control systems	-	-	-	
9. Legislation	Constricting, Strict adherence	Constricting, Strict adherence	Empowering, guidance	
10. Procedures and policies	Constricting, Strict adherence	Constricting Strict adherence	Empowering, guidance	
11. Rewards system and measurement	Few, rigid output	Few, rigid output	Many, flexible quality	-
12. Organisation and resources	-	Predictable sufficient	Predictable, appropriate	-
13. Goals, values and beliefs	Individuals unquestioning output conservative	Individuals apathy role/job conservative	Team customers, quality radical	individuals customers radical

**Framework for describing perceived organisational culture
(The Deal & Kennedy typology)**

Factors found to influence org. culture	The tough-guy, maco culture	The work-hard/play-hard culture	The bet-your company culture	The process culture
1. National culture	Very democratic, democratic	Very democratic, democratic	Very autocratic, autocratic	Very autocratic, autocratic
2. Influence of a leader	High, expertise democratic	Low, Personality, democratic	High, Expertise autocratic	High, Position, autocratic
3. Company history and traditions	Weak, dynamic radical	strong, dynamic radical	Strong, dynamic radical	Strong, stable conservative
4. Technology, products and services	High, service/production	High service/production	High production	low service/production
5. The industry and its competition	Stable, predictable	Stable, predictable	Dynamic, predictable	Stable, predictable
6. Customers	Low, low	High, high	High, low	Low, low
7. Company expectations	high, stable, efforts	high, stable, output	High, dynamic, quality	low, stable, output
8. Computerised information and control systems	Desirable	Desirable	Mandatory	
9. Legislation				
10. Procedures and policies				
11. Rewards system and measurement	Few, flexible Role/job	Few, flexible output	Few, rigid quality	Many, rigid output/customers
12. Organisation and resources	-	predictable, adequate	unpredictable, sufficient	-
13. Goals, values and beliefs	individual, questioning, customers	individual questioning quality, radical	individual, unquestioning, quality, radical	Individual, role/job, apathy, conservative

**Framework for describing perceived organisational culture
(The Quinn & McGrath typology)**

Factors found to influence org. culture	The rational culture	The ideological culture	The consensual culture	The hierarchical culture
1. National culture	Very autocratic, autocratic	Very autocratic, autocratic	Very democratic, democratic	Very autocratic, autocratic
2. Influence of a leader	High, position autocratic	High, personality autocratic	Low, position democratic	High, Expertise autocratic
3. Company history and traditions	Strong, dynamic radical		Weak, stable	Strong, stable conservative
4. Technology, products and services	High, service/production	High service/production	Low service/production	Low service/production
5. The industry and its competition	Dynamic unpredictable	Dynamic unpredictable	Stable predictable	Stable Predictable
6. Customers	High, high		Stable	Stable,
7. Company expectations	High, dynamic, output	Medium, dynamic efforts	Low, stable, loyalty	Low, stable output
8. Computerised information and control systems	-	-	-	-
9. Legislation	-	-	Empowering, guidance	Constricting, strict adherence
10. Procedures and policies	constricting adherence	constricting adherence	Empowering, guidance	Constricting, strict adherence
11. Rewards system and measurement	Many, flexible output	Few, flexible role/job	Few, flexible quality	Many, rigid role/job
12. Organisation and resources	Unpredictable, sufficient	Unpredictable, sufficient		Predictable, appropriate
13. Goals, values and beliefs	Individual questioning output	Individual, role/job	Team quality	Individual unquestioning role/job, conservative

**Framework for describing perceived organisational culture
(The Scholz typology, Evolution induced)**

Factors found to influence org. culture	Stable	Reactive	Anticipating	Exploring	Creative
1. National culture	Very autocratic	Autocratic	Autocratic/ democratic	Democratic	Very democratic
2. Influence of a leader	High, position, autocratic, position	High/medium autocratic, position	Medium autocratic/demo	Low, democratic, personality	Low, very democratic, personality
3. Company history and traditions	Strong, stable conservative	Strong, stable	Strong,	Weak, dynamic, radical	Strong, dynamic, radical
4. Technology, products and services	Low, service/production	Low, service/production	Low/High, service/production	High, service/production	High, service/production
5. The industry and its competition	Stable, predictable	Stable, predictable	Stable, predictable	Dynamic, unpredictable	Dynamic, unpredictable
6. Customers	Low, low	Low, low/high	Low/high, low/high	High, high	High, high
7. Company expectations	Low, stable, efforts	Low, stable, efforts	Low, stable, output	High, dynamic, quality	High, dynamic, quality
8. Computerised information and control systems	-	-	-	desirable	Mandatory
9. Legislation	Constricting, strict adherence	Constricting, strict adherence	Constricting, adherence	Empowering, guidance	Empowering, guidance
10. Procedures and policies	Constricting, strict adherence	Constricting, strict adherence	Constricting, adherence	Empowering, guidance	Empowering, guidance
11. Rewards system and measurement	Few, rigid, role/job	Few, rigid, output	Few, rigid, output	Many, flexible, quality	Many, flexible, quality
12. Organisation and resources	Predictable sufficient	Predictable sufficient		Unpredictable appropriate	Unpredictable appropriate
13. Goals, values and beliefs	Individuals, unquestioning role/job, very conservative	Individuals apathy customer, conservative	Individuals output, conservative/radical	Team, questioning, quality, radical	Team, questioning, quality, very radical

**Framework for describing perceived organisational culture
(The Scholz typology, Internal induced)**

Factors found to influence org. culture	Production culture	Bureaucratic culture	Professional culture
1. National culture	Very democratic/ democratic	Very autocratic/autocratic	Very radical
2. Influence of a leader	-	High, position, autocratic	High, expertise, radical
3. Company history and traditions	Weak, stable conservative	Strong, stable conservative	Strong, dynamic radical
4. Technology, products and services	High, production	Low, service/production	High/low, service/production
5. The industry and its competition	Stable, predictable	Stable, predictable	Dynamic, unpredictable
6. Customers	Low	Low	High
7. Company expectations	Medium, stable, output	Low, stable, output	High, dynamic, quality
8. Computerised information and control systems	Desirable	-	Madatory
9. Legislation	-	Constricting, strict adherence	Empowering, guidance
10. Procedures and policies		Constricting, strict adherence	Empowering, guidance
11. Rewards system and measurement	-	-	-
12. Organisation and resources	Predictable, sufficient	Predictable, sufficient	Unpredictable, appropriate
13. Goals, values and beliefs	Individuals/team output, conservative	Individuals unquestioning role/job, conservative	Individuals/team questioning quality, radical

**Framework for describing perceived organisational culture
(The Sethia & Von Glinow typology)**

Factors found to influence org. culture	The apathetic culture	The caring culture	The exacting culture	The integrating culture
1. National culture	Autocratic	Very caring	Very autocratic/ autocratic	Caring
2. Influence of a leader	-	High, democratic, position	-	-
3. Company history and traditions	Strong, stable conservative	Strong, stable conservative	Strong, stable conservative	Strong, stable conservative
4. Technology, products and services	-	-	-	-
5. The industry and its competition	-	-	-	-
6. Customers				
7. Company expectations	Low, stable, efforts	Medium, stable, efforts	High, dynamic, output	High, dynamic quality
8. Computerised information and control systems	-	-	-	-
9. Legislation	-	-	-	-
10. Procedures and policies	-	-	-	-
11. Rewards system and measurement	Very few, rigid		Many, flexible, output	Many, rigid, quality
12. Organisation and resources				
13. Goals, values and beliefs	Individual, apathy,	Team, Role/job	Individuals, role/job	Both, questioning, quality, output

**Framework for describing perceived organisational culture
(The Wiener typology)**

Factors found to influence org. culture	Functional traditional	Functional charismatic	Elitist traditional	Elitist charismatic
1. National culture				
2. Influence of a leader				High, position autocratic
3. Company history and traditions	Strong, very stable conservative	Strong, dynamic, radical	Strong, stable, conservative	Weak, dynamic radical
4. Technology, products and services				
5. The industry and its competition				
6. Customers				
7. Company expectations	Low, stable, output	High, stable, quality		Low, stable, role/job
8. Computerised information and control systems				
9. Legislation				
10. Procedures and policies				
11. Rewards system and measurement				
12. Organisation and resources				
13. Goals, values and beliefs	Individuals, apathy customers, conservative	Individuals, quality, radical	Team, customers, conservative	Both, unquestioning role/job, radical

Appendix B

Questionnaire

Framework and questions

Factors found to influence org. culture	Terms	Questions
1. National culture	Autocratic → Democratic Conservative → Radical Oppressive → Caring	Q 1 Q 2 Q 3
2. Influence of a dominant leader	Level of influence : High → Medium → Low Type of influence : Autocratic → Democratic Source of influence : Expertise, Position, Personality	Q 4 Q 5 Q 6
3. Company history and traditions	Weak → Strong Stable → Dynamic Conservative → Radical	Q 7 Q 8 Q 9
4. Technology, products and services	Dependence on : High → Medium → Low Line of business : Service, Production	Q 10
5. The Industry and its competition	Market : Stable → Dynamic Predictable → Unpredictable	Q 11 Q 12
6. Customers	Potential influence of : High → Medium → Low Level of customer orientation : High → Medium → Low	Q 13 Q 14
7. Company expectations	Demand on employees : High → Medium → Low Nature : Stable → Dynamic Type : Efforts, Output, Loyalty, Quality	Q 15 Q 16 Q 17
8. Computerised information and control systems	Desirable Mandatory	Q 18 Q 19
9. Legislation	Type : Constricting, Empowering Organisational stance : Guidance, Adherence, Strict adherence	Q 20 Q 21
10. Procedures and policies	Type : Constricting, Empowering Organisational stance : Guidance, Adherence, Strict adherence Employees stance : Guidance, Adherence, Strict adherence	Q 22 Q 23 Q 24
11. Rewards system and measurement	Number : Few → Many Application : Rigid → Flexible Orientation : Customers, Quality, Role/Job, Output	Q 25 Q 26 Q 27
12. Organisation and resources	Availability : Predictable → Unpredictable Appropriate, Sufficient	Q 28 Q 29
13. Goals, values and beliefs	Orientation : Team vs. Individuals or both Employee attitude : Apathy, Questioning, unquestioning type : Conservative → Radical Orientation : Customers, quality, role/job, Output	Q 30 Q 31 Q 32 Q 33

SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Research conducted by
Liaqat Ali, PhD Student
De Montfort University, Leicester (UK)
February & March 1998

This survey has been designed to help ascertain the organisational culture of National Bank of Pakistan (NBP). Please read all directions and consider your answers carefully. All individual answers will be kept completely confidential.

Thank you for participating.

QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire is designed to explore the organisational culture of National Bank of Pakistan (NBP). On the following pages are series of questions and statements that seek your opinion about the atmosphere (culture) of the organisation.

- There are no "Yes" or "No" answers.
- Please read each question very carefully.
- Beneath each question put an cross (X) or tick (✓) in the box which best reflects your immediate feeling about the statement you have just read.
- Please respond as honestly as you can, giving the answers that comes to mind immediately.
- Please do not consult each other for answers.
- Please do not skip any question.
- All answers will be kept strictly confidential and your name will not be connected with your answers in any way.
- Your co-operation is greatly appreciated.

- Please select the answer which represents the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

1. My colleagues are reluctant to disagree (on any matter) with their boss:

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Strongly agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Don't know | <input type="checkbox"/> |

2. I would generally prefer to do something I am used to rather than something that is different or new:

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Strongly agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Don't know | <input type="checkbox"/> |

3. The NBP takes care of all its employees:

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Strongly agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Don't know | <input type="checkbox"/> |

4. In the NBP some traditions are given by a person in management position:

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Strongly agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Slightly agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Slightly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. Don't know | <input type="checkbox"/> |

5. If an employee took a complaint to a person higher than his/her own boss, he/she would suffer later on for doing so (such as getting no increment):

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Strongly agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Don't know | <input type="checkbox"/> |

6. Influence of a person in a management position is due to:

- 1. Position he/she has in bank ☐
- 2. His/her personality ☐
- 3. His/her expertise in the job ☐
- 4. None of the above ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

7. There are some traditions in the NBP which have been followed since a long ago:

- 1. Strongly agree ☐
- 2. Agree ☐
- 3. Disagree ☐
- 4. Strongly disagree ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

8. There is freedom in the NBP to challenge traditional ways of doing things:

- 1. Strongly agree ☐
- 2. Agree ☐
- 3. Disagree ☐
- 4. Strongly disagree ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

9. My manager is always ready to consider a good idea:

- 1. Strongly agree ☐
- 2. Agree ☐
- 3. Disagree ☐
- 4. Strongly disagree ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

10. The impact of technology, products and services on the business of the NBP is:

- 1. High ☐
- 2. Medium ☐
- 3. Low ☐
- 4. Don't know ☐

11. The economic environment of the NBP can change rapidly:

- 1. Strongly agree ☐
- 2. Agree ☐
- 3. Disagree ☐
- 4. Strongly disagree ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

12. The economic environment of the NBP is predictable:

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Strongly agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Don't know | <input type="checkbox"/> |

13. In the NBP the customer always comes first:

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Strongly agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Slightly agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Slightly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. Strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. Don't know | <input type="checkbox"/> |

14. The number of customers/clients of the NBP is:

- | | |
|---------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Small | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Reasonable | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Large | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Don't know | <input type="checkbox"/> |

15. The expectation of the NBP regarding employees' work is:

- | | |
|---------------|--------------------------|
| 1. High | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Medium | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Low | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Don't know | <input type="checkbox"/> |

16. The NBP demands outstanding performance from its employees:

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Strongly agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Agree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Strongly disagree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Don't know | <input type="checkbox"/> |

17. In NBP performance of an employee is evaluated mainly on:

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Effort | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Output | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Quality of work | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. Loyalty | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. Don't know | <input type="checkbox"/> |

18. Computers can increase efficiency and accuracy in the bank:

- 1. Strongly agree ☐
- 2. Agree ☐
- 3. Disagree ☐
- 4. Strongly disagree ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

19. Computers are very useful to this bank:

- 1. Strongly agree ☐
- 2. Agree ☐
- 3. Disagree ☐
- 4. Strongly disagree ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

20. The law of this country as related to this bank:

- 1. Constrains business ☐
- 2. Promotes business ☐
- 3. Neither constrains nor promotes ☐
- 4. Don't know ☐

21. My colleagues regard the law of this country as:

- 1. A guideline ☐
- 2. To be obeyed, with exceptions ☐
- 3. Always to be obeyed ☐
- 4. Don't know ☐

22. Procedures and policies of this bank:

- 1. Constrain business ☐
- 2. Promote business ☐
- 3. Neither constrain nor promote ☐
- 4. Don't know ☐

23. This bank's stance on procedures and policies is:

- 1. A guideline ☐
- 2. To be obeyed, with exceptions ☐
- 3. Always to be obeyed ☐
- 4. Don't know ☐

24. Employees view procedures and policies of this bank as:

- 1. A guideline ☐
- 2. To be obeyed, with exceptions ☐
- 3. Always to be obeyed ☐
- 4. Don't know ☐

25. The number of reward systems are:

- 1. Very low ☐
- 2. Low ☐
- 3. High ☐
- 4. Too high ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

26. These reward systems are:

- 1. Very rigid ☐
- 2. Rigid ☐
- 3. Flexible ☐
- 4. Very flexible ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

27. The main criterion for giving rewards is:

- 1. Customers' satisfaction ☐
- 2. Quality of work ☐
- 3. Quantity of work (output) ☐
- 4. Carrying out assigned role/job ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

28. The availability of funds to buy equipment, stationery, etc. in the NBP is:

- 1. Very predictable ☐
- 2. Predictable ☐
- 3. Unpredictable ☐
- 4. Very unpredictable ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

29. Do you think these funds are:

- 1. More than enough ☐
- 2. Sufficient ☐
- 3. Not quite enough ☐
- 4. Insufficient ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

30. Well thought out decisions are usually made by:

- 1. Individuals ☐
- 2. Groups ☐
- 3. Both individuals and groups ☐
- 4. Don't know ☐

31. My colleagues obey boss's orders without any questions:

- 1. Always ☐
- 2. Frequently ☐
- 3. Rarely ☐
- 4. Never ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

32. My colleagues are ready to accept change in their work:

- 1. Always ☐
- 2. Most of the time ☐
- 3. Rarely ☐
- 4. Never ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

33. The employees' target is to satisfy:

- 1. Customers ☐
- 2. Quality ☐
- 3. Output ☐
- 4. The assigned role/job ☐
- 5. Don't know ☐

In each of the following questions select the response which best represents you. Tick (✓) the box which corresponds your answer. Please select only one response to each question.

34. I am: Male ☐ Female ☐

35. My marital status is: Married ☐ Unmarried ☐ Other ☐

36. The number of my dependent(s) is (please write): []

37. My designation is:

- | | | | |
|------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Sr. Manager | <input type="checkbox"/> | 5. Cashier | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Manager | <input type="checkbox"/> | 6. Assistant | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. Accountant | <input type="checkbox"/> | 7. Other Please specify | _____ |
| 4. Chief cashier | <input type="checkbox"/> | | |

38. My age is (years):

- | | | | |
|----------|--------------------------|------------|--------------------------|
| under 20 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 40 - 49 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 20 - 29 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 50 - 59 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 30 - 39 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 60 or over | <input type="checkbox"/> |

39. I have been employed by the bank for (year/s):

- | | | | |
|-------------|--------------------------|------------|--------------------------|
| Less than 1 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 15 - 19 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 1 - 4 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 20 - 24 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5 - 9 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 25 - 29 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10 - 14 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 30 or more | <input type="checkbox"/> |

40. How long do you think you will continue working for this bank?

- | | | | |
|------------------------|--------------------------|---|--------------------------|
| 1. 2 years at the most | <input type="checkbox"/> | 3. More than 5 years | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | | (but I probably will leave before I retire) | |
| 2. From 2 to 5 years | <input type="checkbox"/> | 4. Until I retire | <input type="checkbox"/> |

41. Are you on secondment from Pakistan? Yes ☐ No ☐

This completes the questionnaire. All individual answers will be kept strictly confidential. Your name will not be connected with your questionnaire in any way. The personal information (questions 34-41) will be used only to check whether the data collection is representative.

Many thanks for your participation.

Appendix C

Sample Size and Accuracy

Sample Size and Accuracy

A good sample is an accurately and efficiently assembled model of the target population. No matter how proficient one is, however, sampling bias or error is inevitable (Fink, 1995). There is a statistical formula for the calculation of sample size and standard errors but a lot of estimations are involved (Easterby-Smith, 1991). Stratified random sampling is more complicated and leads to larger sampling than simple random sampling (Fink, 1995). Stratified random sampling with stratification explained in the Section 5.3.3 will err on a larger number than is necessary to get a representative sample within the time frame for this study. The following formula given by Easterby-Smith (1991 p.123) for estimating the sample size is applied for ascertaining the sample size.

$$n = P (100 - P) / E^2$$

n = sample size required

P = percentage occurrence of the state or condition

E = maximum error required

On the basis of the pilot study it is expected that 90% of the branches will respond within range of ± 1 for questions 4 and 13, and ± 0.5 points for rest of the questions on the Likert-type scale and remaining 10% will answer other than this. Hence P is 90. The above formula can be applied to determine how many responses would be required to produce a standard error of no more than 3%. A slightly larger than normal percentage of standard error is undertaken due to the reason that Pakistan is a developing country and people are not too familiar with research study. Hence they might not respond to questions carefully.

$$n = 90 (100 - 90) / 3^2 = 100 \text{ branches}$$

According to the above formula a sample of 100 branches is required for this study.

Standard error can also be calculated with the help of the following formula.

SE = Standard error

$$SE = \sqrt{OP(100 - P) / n} = \sqrt{0.90(100 - 90) / 100} = 3 \text{ or } 3\%$$

The formula for finite population is:

$$n' = n / (1 + n / N)$$

n = Sample size

N = Total population size

n' = Sample size required

$$n' = 100 / (1 + 100 / 1600) = 94 \text{ branches}$$

To be on safe side this sample size of 94 branches is increased to 100 branches. A stratified sample (see Section 5.3.3) size of 100 branches of the NBP represents the population well and provides an excellent basis for drawing conclusions (May, 1993).

• Confidence Intervals

As discussed above it is expected that 90% branches will respond within range of ± 1 for questions 4 and 13, and ± 0.5 points for rest of the questions on the Likert-type scale and remaining 10% branches will answer other than this. For the 95% confidence, standard errors will have to be doubled. By adding this double errors i.e. 6 in expected number of branches in the range and also subtracting 6 from it, a confidence interval from 84 to 96 branches will be achieved. Now it can be estimated with 95% confidence that the proportion of the sample replying within the limits fixed for this purpose is somewhere in the interval.

Appendix D

Sample Transcripts

Q1. Do you feel satisfied with the working environment in NBP?

Ans. Yes, I am fully satisfied.

Q2. How is the behaviour of subordinates with you (manager)?

Ans. Generally it is good.

Q3. What do you mean by generally?

Ans. I mean overall. I mean it is not as good as in Pakistan. Sometime they do not give as much respect as in Pakistan.

Q4. How you will compare the behaviour of employees ~~in~~ (subordinates) in Pakistan and in UK?

Ans. Pakistani (I mean in Pakistan) are more submissive and employees here in UK are more straight-forward.

Q5. Which one is best? I mean Pakistani or UK.

Ans. Pakistani is best.

Q6. Do you know ~~so~~ how they behave with each other?

Ans. They behave nicely with each other.

Q7. Do you feel that subordinates reluctant to disagree on any matter with their manager.

Ans. No. they don't hesitate.

Q8. It means they can disagree on the order of the manager.

Ans. NO. they cannot disobey.

Q9. what you think that employees generally like to do something they used to rather than something different or new?

Ans. Yes they generally like to do something they used to rather than something different or new.

Q10. what is the reason for this?

Ans. It is common phenomenon that man like routine work and do not like change in his work.

Q11. Is there certain traditions which are followed since long ago?

Ans. I do not know.

Q12. Does bank care for all its employees?

Ans. Yes it does.

Q13. How it care?

Ans. Less interest rate on loan ^(long and short-term) to employees, and other facilities.

Q14. Is there liberty to challenge traditional way of doing things?

Ans. Yes there is liberty.

Q15. It means procedures and policies of the bank are just guidelines.

Ans. NO. Employees have to obey.

Q16. Procedures and policies promote business or constraint business of the bank.

Ans. Promote business of the bank.

Q17. What is the perception of employees regarding procedures and policies of the bank?

Ans. Always to be obeyed.

Q18. What is the main criterion for evaluating performance of employees?

Ans. Both quantity and quality of work.

Q19. The reward systems are flexible or rigid.

Ans. These are flexible.

Q20. What is the criterion for giving rewards?

Ans. It is quantity as well as quality of work.

Q21. What is the importance of customer in bank?

Ans. He is the most important person in the bank.

Q22. How is the employees behaviour with customers.

Ans. It is good.

Q23. Is there ever complaint by customers against the behaviour of bank staff?

Ans. No. never.

4. or complaint by bank staff against customers' behaviour.

5. no such complaint

6. What is the reason that NBP in UK has less customers as compare to local banks?

There are two reasons.

1. People generally prefer local banks as compare to foreign banks.
2. We do not offer advance facility as by other banks, for example, ATMs, advances for non-productive work etc. We are also planning for ATMs.

At the end thanked

Final:

Q1= what you think about the working environment of the NBP?

Ans. It is good.

Q2= How bank staff behave with each other?

Ans. They behave nicely.

Q3= How they behave with managers?

Ans. They behave obediently.

Q4= Do you think that all employees accept boss' order without any question?

Ans. Yes

Q5= What is the reason of acceptance without questioning?

Ans. Employees are afraid of from managers.

Q6= Why they are afraid of?

Ans. Because managers do not like questioning and they write/recommend for special increments and promotion.

Q7= Why managers do not like question?

Ans. Because managers think that he is superior and he has authority to order for any thing.

Q8= How employees behave with customers?

Ans. Employees behave gently.

Q9. What is the importance of a customer in the bank?

Ans. He is the most important person in the bank.

Q10. Is there ever happen that there is conflict between customer and bank staff?

Ans. Sometime it happen that there is a conflict but it is resolved amicably.

Q11. How the performance of an employee is evaluated in the NBP?

Ans. It is evaluated on quantity and quality of work.

Q12. What is the main criterion for giving rewards?

Ans. Same which I have told earlier. I mean quantity and quality of work.

Q13. Do you think that reward systems are rigid or flexible?

Ans. These are flexible.

Q14. Are you satisfied with the evaluation of performance for rewards?

Ans. Yes I am satisfied.

Q15. Do you think that well thought decisions are usually by individuals or groups?

Ans. Well thought out decisions are ~~usually~~ usually by groups but at this moment decision are by individuals (managers).

Q16. Do you think that there sufficient funds for the purchase of stationery etc.

Ans. I do not know.

Q17. Do procedures and policies of this bank contrains or promote business?

Ans. promote business.

Q18. Is there liberty in the implementation of procedures and policies of the bank?

Ans. No. It is strict to implement procedures and policies of the bank.

Q19. How is the behaviour of manager with subordinates?

Ans. It is reasonable.

Q20. What do you mean by reasonable?

Ans. I mean authoritarian behaviour.

Q21. If there is a good idea by the subordinate, he will accept or consider it or not?

Ans. I do not know.

Q23. If an employee took a complaint against his manager, do you think he will suffer for doing so.

Ans. I hope so.

Q24. What type of suffer to employee?

Ans. No recommendation by manager for increments or promotion

Q. Do you satisfied with the environment of working in the Bank?

A. Yes, I am fully satisfied. It is family like.

Q. Do you satisfied with the behaviour of subordinates towards you?

A. yes, I am satisfied.

Q. Do you think that these subordinates are ready to accept change in their work.

A. Sometime. But generally they prefer to do what they use to do.

Q. What is the reason that subordinates prefer to do what they use to do?

A. They feel secure by what they use to do.

Q. What do you mean by feel secure?

A. They ~~want~~ do not want to take risk.

Q. What type of risk?

A. Banking business is regarding ~~set~~ money and it is possible that a person may do a mistake in money and hence liable for that.

Q. Can you give an event of such mistake by any employee?

A. There are many such events. For example, in this month our Cashier paid 100 Rs more to a client and in the evening he balanced the amount from his pocket.

Q = It means there is possibility that he will pay an amount and he has earning in this way.

A = I do not think it is possible.

Q = Why it is not possible?

A = Because the receivers always very careful. If there is less money then they inform immediately and if there is more then they keep quiet.

Q = Do you satisfied ^{about} ~~with~~ the attitude of your ^{staff} ~~satisfied~~ with customer?

A = Overall I am satisfied. but sometime there is complaint by the customers about the attitude of staff.

Q = If there is complaint by customer then what you do?

A = I try to compromise between staff member and customer. but, it is genius that staff member deal with many customers and they become tired.

Q = Have you ^{ever} asked to head-office for more staff?

A = Yes, many time but in vain.

Q = ~~Do you think~~ what is the importance of customers in the bank?

A = Customers are very important for us a bank.

Q = Do you think that customer is always right?

A = No, sometime they are wrong.

Q. Do you think that staff in the Bank (Subordinates) feel hesitant to disagree with managers?

A. Some time, but they can disagree with Managers.

Q. Is there any event of disagreement by subordinates?

A. I am not remembering at this moment.

Q. Are staff members give any suggestion or idea for work.

A. Rarely. they can.

Q. Due to heavy work load, is there ever suggestion by employees for improvement.

A. Always there is demand by staff for more staff.

Q. Do you think there is any other solution of this problem?

A. yes more branches of bank.

Q. Have you ever given this suggestion to head-office?

A. NO

Q. why not?

A. No one asked me for suggestion.

Q. You can give suggestion your self.

A. no. because there is meeting according to agenda and ~~not~~ no one can talk other than agenda.

Q 23: Can you run main computers can help to increase the efficiency and accuracy in the bank? I mean you can easily handle this heavy work load.

Ans: yes, but it will increase another problem of Computer training. Cost of training, time involved for training etc.

Q 24: Bank will bear all these expenditures?

Ans: Already bank is cutting budget. I mean reducing the expenditures of the bank.

Q 25: If bank will not adopt this technology fully then in future bank will have tremendous competition from competitors?

Ans: Head office people are responsible for this.

Q 26: Do you think introduction of computer will be accepted by bank staff?

Ans: yes, but if computer training is provided by bank.

Q 27: Do you think staff members are happy to work in the bank?

Ans: generally they are happy but they are unhappy on reward systems of the bank.

Q 28: How the working environment of the bank can be improved?

Ans: It can be improved by more training and increase in number of rewards systems.

Thanks for sparing time for this interview.

357 Q1: Do you satisfied with the working environment in the Bank.

358 A. Yes, I am satisfied.

359 Q2: Do you satisfied with the behaviour of other staff members in the bank?

360 A. yes, I am satisfied.

361 Q3: What do you mean by satisfied?

362 A. I mean no quersal with each other. All are happy with each other.

363 Q4: Do you happy ~~with~~^{about} the behaviour of you managers.

364 A. yes, I am.

365 Q5: Do you think, he is ready to accept a new idea given by any employee?

366 A. yes.

367 Q6: Have you ever given new idea?

368 A. no.

369 Q7: Since how long you are working for this bank?

370 A. Since last- 15 years ~~to~~ I am working for This bank.

371 Q8: Is there increase or decrease in the number of customers or work in the bank?

lots of increase in number of customers, and work of the bank.

Let's see the importance of a customer for this bank.

Customer is very important for this bank.

Can you compare between a customer and work of the bank.

What do you mean.

I mean if you are doing some ^{important} work and a customer want to talk with you on some matter, to whom you will prefer.

I will prefer bank work.

Can you explain that why you will prefer bank work over customer?

Because I am employee of the bank and not of the customer but if there is a rich customer then I will care for him.

What do you mean by rich customer.

A customer who has invested ^{more} / deposited / money in bank.

If you will not take care of every customer then he will leave the bank. I mean he will close his account and open account in another bank.

It does not matter, we have many account holders.

Already you said that customers are very important for bank.

It is just a phrase.

1. Do you think that manager will know this?

He himself does not care for every customer.

2. Do you think staff member reluctant to disagree with this Managers?

Yes,

3. What is the reason of reluctant?

Managers do not like disagreement.

4. What you think about the procedures and policies of this bank?

There are good.

5. What do you mean by good?

I mean we have to follow these hence it gives us clear guideline for work.

6. The number of reward systems of this bank.

There are few. It should be more.

7. The main criterion for giving reward

Manager's satisfaction, I mean work, output.

8. Do you think computers can be useful for this bank.

I do not know.

9. Would you like to take training of computer?

Appendix E

Sample Open Coding Concept Cards

- Location in data Card Number Label

Card 1

Working Environment

- para 2, 252 M: Fully satisfied, Family like.
- para 52, S: Good
- para 95 M: Satisfactory
- para 98 M: Friendly, No pressure on employees, feel like a home,
Employees are member of the family.
- para 148 S: Satisfied
- para 306 M: Working environment can be improved by increase in
number of resources
- para 308 S: Satisfied.
- para 358 M: Excellent, Family like
- para 402 S: Satisfied
- para 458 M: Satisfied
- para 510 S: Quite satisfactory
- para 554 M: quite happy with working environment, Family like.
- para 554 S: Satisfied

LINKS WITH: CARD

Cross references

Note of incident

Location in data	Card Number	Label
Card 2		<u>Behaviour of Subordinates with Managers</u>
para 4,	M: Generally good	
para 6,	M: Not as good as in Pakistan, not give us much respect as in Pakistan	
para 8,	M: more submissive in Pakistan, More straight-forward in UK.	
para 10,	M: Pakistani subordinate is best.	
para 56	S: Obedient	
para 100	M: Respective	
para 102	M: Respect is due to position and expertise of manager.	
Para 124	M: Influence of manager is due to his position	
Para 152	S: Submissive	
Para 254	M: Satisfied	
Para 318	S: not given new idea	
Para 360	M: very Co-operative, work as a team, like a family	
Para 460	M: is good	
Para 470	M: very Cooperative	
Para 514	S: very Submissive	
Para 556	M: quite good	
Para 598	S: Employees behave with managers nicely	
Para 708	M: Employees more submissive because no assistance by Govt in unemployment due to fear of hard ACR by Manager whereas in UK there is Govt assistance in case of unemployment	
LINKS WITH: CARD		

Cross references

Note of incident

Para 748 M: Employees more submissive in Pakistan than UK because they fear of hard ACR by Managers In UK there is assistance by Govt in case of unemployment

Cont.....

Card 2

656, 667, 680, 682, 689
Para 205, 218, tone of subordinates with manager Low pitch, very low pitch
657, 668, 681, 690
Para 206, 219, Face impression Cheerful, fair, smiling, very cheerful
657, 670, 683, 691
Para 207, 220, Language polite, very polite, polite, very polite
660, 671, 684, 692
Para 208, 221, Response time quick, very quick, quick
672, 693
Para 209, Time given to listen fair, sufficient, fair, too much

669 Face impression of manager with customer very cheerful
682 " " " " " " " "

Location in data	Card Number	Label
Card 2B		<u>Behaviors of Subordinates with each other.</u>
para 12,		M: Nicely with each other.
para 54		S: Nicely with each other.
para 150		S: Friendly
para 310		S: Satisfied
para 312		S: No quarrel with each other, all are happy with each other.
para 404		S: very good, we feel like a family
para 512		S: very good, they consider them as a family
para 596		S: Satisfied, good
LINKS WITH: CARD		

Cross references

Note of incident

Location in data	Card Number	Label
Card 2C		Behaviour of Employees ^{Staff} with Customers.
para 44	M: Good	
para 46	M: Never Complaint by Customers against behaviour of staff.	
para 66	S: Employee behave gently.	
para 114	M: They behave gently.	
para 270	M: Overall I am satisfied.	
para 462	M: is good	
para 464	M: Never Complaint by Customers about the behaviour of staff	
para 558	M: Excellent	
para 560	M: Never Complaint by Customers against the behaviour of staff.	
para 600	S: Employees behave with Customers Gently	
LINKS WITH: CARD		
Cross references	Note of incident	

Cont. —

Card 2C

Para 205, 218, ^{667, 682, 689} Tone of Staff with customers

a little high pitch, low pitch, ~~very~~ low pitch

Para 206, 219, ^{681, 690} Face impressions

normal, fair, Cheerful, ^{not} Smiling

Para 207, 220, ^{683, 691} Language of Staff

polite, not polite

Para 208, 221, ^{661, 671, 684, 692} Response time

fair, quick, not reasonable, quick, slow

Para 661, 672, ^{685, 693} time given to listen

not reasonable, fair, reasonable, not proper

Para 662 Overall behaviour with customers was not good. An illiterate person was ignored and other customer was entertained.

Para 674 customers were treated gently
" 675 A touch of personal banking

Para 694 Overall behaviour with customers was not good.

Location in data	Card Number	Label
Card	2 E	
72		Acceptance of good idea
para 108		S: Acceptance of good idea by manager do not know. M: Ready to consider good idea.
para 284		M: Staff can give good ideas
para 292		M: NO one asked me for suggestion
para 316		S: Manager ready to accept new idea.
para 318		S: not given new idea
para 416		S: ready to accept good idea but not given
para 498		M: Never any idea given
para 518		S: Manager not ready to accept good idea.
para 520		S: I have not given new idea because I know he will not accept.
para 566		M: Employees can give new idea for improvement any time.
para 568		M: NO such example of new idea.
para 610		S: Employees can give good suggestion.
para 612		S: Manager w. ll consider that good idea
para 614		S: Traditional way of doing things can be changed.
LINKS WITH: CARD 2 D		

Cross references

Note of incident

Location in data	Card Number	Label
Card 2 F		Punctuality of Staff
para 201		Staff and manager arrived 5 to 9.00 am
para 204		work started at 15 to 20 minutes after 9.00 am
para 212		Staff arrived 5 to 10 minutes past 9.00 am
para 213		Manager arrived 20 minutes past 9.00 am
para 215		work started 20 minutes past 9.00 am.
para 653		Staff and manager arrived at 9.00 am
para 654		work started at 9.10 am
para 663		Staff and manager arrived 5-10 minutes before 9.00 am
para 665		work started at 9.00 am
para 677		Staff and manager arrived at 5 minutes to 9.00 am
para 678		work started at 5 minutes past 9.00 am
para 686		Staff and manager arrived 5 minutes late.
para 687		work started 15 minutes late
LINKS WITH: CARD		

Cross references

Note of incident

Location in data	Card Number	Label
Card 3		<u>Hesitant / Reluctant to disagree with boss / Fear</u>
para 14		M: Not hesitant to disagree.
para 110		M: Employees Can disagree with managers.
para 156		S: Employees are not reluctant.
para 28e		on other page
para 340		S: Staff members reluctant to disagree with managers.
para 342		S: Managers do not like disagreement.
para 370		M: Not hesitant to disagree
para 472		M: Employee will accept change in his work unhappily
para 522		S: Employees afraid of to disagree with manager
para 564		M: Not afraid to disagree
para 570		M: Employees obey every order of the manager.
para 602		S: Employees generally do not disagree with manager.
para 634		S: Employees obey boss order without any question.
para 636		S: Employees suppose to obey without any question.
LINKS WITH: CARD		

Cross references

Note of incident

Location in data	Card Number	Label
Card 38		<u>Reluctant to disagree with Boss</u>
para 16		M: Cannot disagree
para 58		S: Accept boss order without any question
para 60		S: Employees afraid of from managers.
para 62		S: Managers do not like questioning.
para 154		S: Employees obey every order of boss without questioning
para 280		M: Subordinates reluctant to disagree with boss but they can disagree
para 410		S: No one disagree with manager.
para 412		S: Managers do not like disagreement
para 414		S: My manager is also like other managers.
para 604		S: Managers do not like disagreement.
para 606		S: Employee will suffer later on for disagreement. manager will not select him for promotion.
para 608		S: Employee will suffer in shape of bad ACR.
LINKS WITH: CARD		

Cross references

Note of incident

Location in data

Card Number

Label

Card

4

Resistance to Change / Status quo

para 18

M: Employees generally like to do something they used to
rather than something different or new.

para 20

M: Common phenomenon—that man like routine work and do
not like change in his work.

para 162

S: Employees prefer to do routine work.

para 164

S: Employees feel safe with routine work.

para 166

S: Easy to do routine work.

para 168

S: Employees will resist to change.

para 256

M: Generally they prefer to do what they use to do.

para 258

M: They feel secure.

para 260

M: They don't want to take risk.

para 376

M: Generally prefer to do routine work.

para 470

S: Generally prefer to do what they are used to do
rather than something different or new.

para 422

S: They feel safe with routine work.

para 424

S: Less possibility of error or mistakes in routine work.

para 426

S: If there is error in money or transaction error of money then
employee is responsible for that.

para 472

M: Employee will accept change in his work unhappily.

para 474

M: They prefer to do something they are used to rather than something different
or new

para 476

M: They feel secure with routine work

LINKS WITH: CARD 18

Cross references

Note of incident

para 562

M: Employees ready to accept change in their work.

para 638

S: Generally employees prefer to do something they used to

para 640

S: They feel easy and safe with routine work.

Location in data

Card Number

Label

Card 7

Procedures and Policies

para 30

M: Employees have to obey procedures & policies.

para 34

M: Employees perceive always to be obeyed.

para 36

S: Strict to implement procedures & policies.

para 128

M: No liberty in implementation of procedures & policies

para 132

M: Always to be obeyed.

para 190

S: are followed strictly.

para 192

S: Bank stance is always to be obeyed.

Para 344

S: Procedures and policies are good.

Para 346

S: we have to follow these.

Para 454

S: Strict implementation of procedures & policies.

Para 478

M: They follow the rules.

Para 482

M: They have to follow the rules strictly

Para 548

S: No one can violate procedures and policies.

Para 576

M: No flexibility in procedures and policies.

Para 616

S: Procedures and policies can not be changed.

LINKS WITH: CARD

Cross references

Note of incident

Location in data	Card Number	Label
Card 8	<u>Evaluation of performance of employees</u>	
para 36	M: Quantity and quality of work.	
para 72	S: Quantity and quality of work.	
para 78	S: Satisfied with evaluation of performance	
para 134	M: Quantity and quality of work.	
para 176	S: Quantity of work.	
para 432	S: Generally output	
para 546	S: Evaluated on work.	
para 586	M: Quantity of work	
LINKS WITH: CARD		
Cross references		Note of incident

Location in data	Card Number	Label
Card 9	<u>Reward Systems</u>	
para 38	M: Flexible	
para 76	S: Flexible	
para 138	M: No. of rewards are few	
para 140	M: Very rigid	
para 178	S: Few and rigid	
para 304	M: Un-happy on reward systems of the bank.	
para 306	M: Working environment can be improved by increase in reward systems.	
para 348	S: Rewards are few	
para 390	M: " " "	
para 496	M: Criterion for rewards are flexible	
para 642	S: Not happy with reward systems	
para 644	S: very rigid	
LINKS WITH: CARD		
Cross references	Note of incident	

Location in data	Card Number	Label
Card 98		<u>Reward systems (Criterion)</u>
para 40	M:	Quantity and quality of work.
* para 74	S:	Quantity and quality of work.
para 78	S:	Satisfied with evaluation of performance
* para 136	M:	Quantity and quality of work.
para 350	S:	Manager satisfaction, quantity of work.
para 494	M:	Hard-working of the employees.
para 648	S:	Recommendation of managers
para 648	S:	Personal relations and hierarchy.
* Para 62	S:	Recommendation by manager for special increments &
* Para 74	Promotion.	
	S:	NO recommendation by manager for increments & Promotion.
Para 528	Manager will not write good ACR of that employee, the Promotion or special increments will not be given to that employee.	
Para 710, 730, 750, 768,	Other banks have reward systems.	
LINKS WITH: CARD		
Cross references		Note of incident

Location in data	Card Number	Label
Card 10	<u>Customers' Importance</u>	
para 42	M: Most important in bank.	
para 68	S: Most important in bank.	
para 116	M: Most important in bank.	
para 276	M: Most important	
para 278	M: Sometimes customers are wrong.	
para 324	S: Very important for this bank.	
para 328	S: I will prefer work on customer	
para 330	S: I am employee of the bank I will care for rich ^{wealthy} customers.	
para 336	S: Customers are important, is just a phrase	
para 338	S: Manager himself does not care for every customer.	
para 378	M: Most important	
para 380	M: Instructed to subordinates to take care of the customers.	
para 442	S: Important	
para 444	S: More important	
para 446	S: We are in model branch and it is told by manager that customers are more important	
para 530	S: Customer is important	
para 532	S: Work is more important than customer	
para 534	S: No matter, if customer change his bank.	
LINKS WITH: CARD		
Cross references	Note of incident	
para 580	M: Customer is the most important person in the Bank.	
para 620	S: Customer is very important	
para 622	S: Important than any other work in bank.	

Location in data	Card Number	Label
Card 10 B	Customers	
para 702	Customers are very happy with model branch.	
para 704	Model branches are to attract wealthy customers.	
para 706	Other banks also have model branches.	
para 722	Customers are very happy with model branch.	
para 724	" " not very happy with ordinary branches.	
para 726	Other banks have model branches	
para 742	Customers not happy with ordinary branches.	
para 762	" " very happy with " "	
LINKS WITH: CARD		

Cross references

Note of incident

Location in data	Card Number	Label
Card 18		Uncertainty avoidance.
para 400		M: till retirement
para 456		S: till retirement
para 508		M: till retirement
para 592		M: till retirement
para 712		M: To support many dependents
para 752		M: To feed many dependents
para 708		M: No assistance or unemployment allowance by Govt of Pakistan.
748		M: In Pakistan no support by Govt. for Unemployed persons.
LINKS WITH: CARD		

Cross references

Note of incident

Location in data	Card Number	Label
Card	22	
		<u>Autocratic</u>
para 62		S: Do not like questioning
para 64		S: Manager thought he has authority to order
para 90		S: Authoritarian
para 154		S: Employees obey every order of Boss without questioning
para 211		^{very} Autocratic
340		S: Staff reluctant to disagree with managers.
para 342		S: Managers do not like disagreement
para 412		S ~ " " " " "
para 516		S: Intractable
para 522		S: Employees afraid of to disagree with managers.
para 604		S: Managers do not like disagreement
para 634		S: Employees obey boss order without any question
para 636		S: Employees suppose to obey without any questions.
LINKS WITH: CARD		

Cross references

Note of incident

Appendix F

Sample Axial Coding

Axial Coding

CARDS: 4, 20

Causal Conditions

Different or new work



Phenomenon

Resistance to change

Specific dimensions of Resistance
High resistance (4, p.18, p.20, p.162,
p.168, p.256, p.376, p.420, p.474,
p.638)

Properties of Different or new work

Context

Feel secure with current work (4, p.258, p.422, p.476, p.640)

Don't want to take risk with new work (4, p.260)

Intervening Conditions

Monetary responsibility of employees (20, p.262, p.264, p.424, p.426, p.428, p.430)

General behaviour of employees (4, p.256, p.376, p.420, p.638)

Action/Interactional Strategies

Daily reconciliation statement (20, p.430)

Consequences

Routine working of employees (4, p.18, p.20, p.162, p.166, p.256, p.376, p.420, p.422,
p.476, p.638, p.640)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 9, 9B, 16, 19

Causal Conditions

More output



Phenomenon

Reward Systems

Specific dimensions of Reward systems

Rigid (9, p.140, p.178)

Few (9, p.138, p.348, p.390)

Properties of Output

Context

Quantity of work (16, p.322, p.744, p.764)

Intervening Conditions

Rewards systems by other banks (9B, p.710, p.730, p.750, p.768)

Action/Interactional Strategies

Special increments (19, p.434, p.648, p.550)

Promotion (19, p.434, p.648, p.550)

Consequences

More Output (16, p.322, p.744, p.764)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 2C, 10

Causal Conditions

Financial position of customers



Phenomenon

Importance of customers

Specific dimensions of Importance of customers

Less / More important (10, p.42, p.68, .116,
p.276, p.324, p.336, p.378, p.442)

Properties of

Context

Behaviour of staff with customers (2C, p.44, p.46, p.66, p.114, p.462
p. 464, p.558, p.560, p.600)

Intervening Conditions

Wealthy customers (2C, p.674, p.675, 10, p.330, p.380, p.446)
Personal relations of customers with staff (2C, 662)

Action/Interactional Strategies

More polite with wealthy customers (2C, p.218, p.220, p.670, p.680)
Less polite with ordinary customers (2C, p.218, p.220, p.670, p.680)

Consequences

Less care of customers at ordinary branches (10, p.330, p.380, p.532, p.534)
More care of customers at corporate branches (10, p.330, p.332, p.380, p.446, p.662)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 1, 5

Causal Conditions

Dependence of staff on bank



Phenomenon

Paternalism

Specific dimensions of Paternalism

High paternalism (5, p.24, p.26, p.182, p.372, p.448, p.572, p.624)

Properties of Dependence

More dependence of staff (5, p.728, p.746, p.766)

Context

Financial benefits to staff (5, p.26, p.184, p.374, p.450, p.574, p.626)

Family like (1, p.98, p.252, p.358, p.554)

Intervening Conditions

Policies of other banks (5, p.706, p.728, p.746, p.766)

Action/Interactional Strategies

Loans to staff at lower interest rates (5, p.26, p.184, p.374, p.450, p.574, p.626)

Consequences

Employees satisfied (1, p.1, p.98, p.148, p.252, p.554, p.594,)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 2, 2D, 3, 3B, 9B

Causal Conditions

Subordinates afraid of managers



Phenomenon

Reluctant to disagree

Properties of Afraid

High (3, p.522, 3B, p.60)

Less (3.p.14, p.110, p.156)

Specific dimensions of Reluctant

High (3, p.340, p.602)

Less (3.p.14, p.110, p.156)

Context

Special increments and Promotion (3B, p.608, 9B, p.62, p.94b)

Branches in Pakistan

Branches in UK

Intervening Conditions

Managers dislike disagreement (2D, p.62, p.342, p.412)

Action/Interactional Strategies

Obey every order of manager (3, p.570, p.634, 3B, p.16, p.58, p.154)

Consequences

More submissive employees in Pakistan (2, p.6, p.8, p.10, p.56, p.100, p.152, 254, 514, p.708, p.748)

Less submissive employees in UK (2, p.6)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 4, 7, 18, 20

Causal Conditions

Uncertainty avoidance



Phenomenon

Procedures and Policies

Properties of Uncertainty avoidance
High (18, p.400, p.456, p.508, p.592)

Specific dimensions of procedures
and policies

Strict adherence (7, p.30, p.34, p.86,
p.128, p.132, p.190, p.192, p.346,
p.454, p.482, p.548)

Context

Feel Secure (4, p.258, p.422, p.476, p.640)
Don't like to take risk (4, p.260)

Intervening Conditions

Financial responsibility of employees (20, p.262, p.264, p.424, p.426, p.430)

Action/Interactional Strategies

No flexibility (7, p.30, p.34, p.86, p.128, p.132, p.190, p.192, p.346, p.454, p.482, p.548,
p.576, p.616)

Consequences

Routine working (4, p.18, p.20, p.162, p.166, p.256, p.376, p.420, p.422, p.474, p.476,
p.638, p.640)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 1, 2, 2C, 5, 8, 9B

Causal Conditions

Behaviour of staff



Phenomenon

Working Environment

Specific dimensions of Working environment

Good (1, p.52)

Satisfied (1, p.95, p.148, p.308, p.402, p.458, p.594)

Friendly (1, p.98)

Properties of Behaviour

Good (2, p.4, p.460, p.556, 2C, p.44, p.66, p.462, p.558, p.600)

Submissive (2, 8, p.152, p.514)

Cooperative(2, 360, 470)

Obedient (2, p.56)

Authoritarian (2D, p.62, p.64, p.90, p.211, p.342, p.412)

Context

Behaviour of staff with customers (2C, p.44, p.46, p.66, p.114, p.462, p.558, p.600)

Performance of staff (8, p.36, p.72, p.134, p.176, p.432, p.546, p.586)

Intervening Conditions

Action/Interactional Strategies

Reward systems (9B, p.40, p.62, p.74, p.94b, p.136, p.350, p.494, p.648)

Paternalism (5, p.24, p.26, p.182, p.184, p.372, p.448, p.450, p.574, p.624, p.626)

Consequences

Satisfaction of staff (1, p.2, p.52, p.96, p.148, p.252, p.308, p.358, p.402, p.458, p.510, p.554, p.594)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 18

Causal Conditions

Fear of future



Phenomenon

Uncertainty Avoidance

Specific dimensions of Uncertainty avoidance

High (18, p.400, p.456, p.508, p.592)

Properties of Fear

High (18, p.712, p.752)

Context

Work for this bank (18, p.400, p.456, p.508, p.592)

Intervening Conditions

Dependents (18, p.712, p.752)

No support by Govt. during unemployment (18, p.708, p.748)

Action/Interactional Strategies

Consequences

Want to work for bank till retirement (18, p.400, p.456, p.508, p.592)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 2C, 8, 10, 10B

Causal Conditions

Financial position of customers



Phenomenon

Behaviour of staff with customers in corporate branches

Specific dimensions of Behaviour

Tone-low pitch (2C, p.218, p.667, p.680)

Face-cheerful (2C, p.206, p.220)

Language-polite (2C, p.207, p.220)

Response time-quick (2C, 221)

Properties of Financial position

More deposit (10, p.332)

Context

Importance of customers (10, p.42,
p.68, p.116, p.324, p.378, p.446, p.580)

Intervening Conditions

Wealthy customers (10, p.330, p.332, p.380)

Other banks policy (10B, p. 704 p.726)

Action/Interactional Strategies

A touch of personal banking (2C, p.223a, p.674, p.675)

Evaluation of performance (8, p.36, p.72, p.134)

Consequences

More happy customers (10B, p.702, p.722)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 2C, 8, 10, 10B, 15, 16

Causal Conditions

Burden of work



Phenomenon

Behaviour of staff to customers in ordinary branches

Specific dimensions of Behaviour

Tone-high pitch (2C, p.205, p.656)

Face-less cheerful (2C, p.657, p.681)

Language-not polite (2C, 659)

Response time-not quick (2C, p.660, p.684)

Properties of Burden

Quantity of Work (16, p.744, p.764)

Context

Importance of customers (10, p.42, p.68, p.116, p.324, p.378, p.446, p.580)

Intervening Conditions

Less wealthy customers (10, p.328, p.330, p.338, p.532)

Number of customers (10B, p.764, 16, p.322, p.744)

Action/Interactional Strategies

Less care of customers at ordinary branches (10, p.330, p.380, p.532, p.534)

Consequences

Less happy customers (10B, p.724, p.742)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 2, 3,

Causal Conditions

Position of managers
Power of managers



Phenomenon

Behaviour of subordinates with managers

Specific dimensions of Behaviour

More submissive - less submissive (2, p.6, p.8, p.10)

Properties of

Context

Attitude of staff with manager in Pakistan (2, p.6, p.8, p.10, p.360, p.460, 470, p.556, p.598)

Attitude of staff with manager in UK (2, p.6, p.8, p.10)

Intervening Conditions

Assistance by Govt. during unemployment in Pakistan/UK (2, p.708, p.748)

Action/Interactional Strategies

Subordinates reluctant to disagree with managers (3, p.340, 3B, p.280)

Consequences

More submissive staff in Pakistan (2, p.6, p.8, p.10, p.56, p.100, p.152, p.254, p.514)

Less submissive staff in UK (2, p.6, p.8)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 2D, 10, 10B

Causal Conditions

Financial position of customers



Phenomenon

Behaviour of managers with customers

Specific dimensions of behaviour
Time given to listen customers (2C,
p.661, 2D, 658)

Properties of

Context

Importance of customers (10, p.42,
p.68, p.116, p.324, p.378, p.446, p.580)

Intervening Conditions

Wealthy customers (10, p.330, p.332, p.380)
Less wealthy customers (10, p.328, p.330, p.338, p.532)

Action/Interactional Strategies

More polite with wealthy customers (2C, p.218, p.220, p.670, p.680)
Less polite with ordinary customers (2C, p.218, p.220, p.670, p.680)

Consequences

More happy customers at corporate branches (10B, p.702, p.722)
Less happy customers at ordinary branches (10B, p.724, p.742)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 2D, 3B, 12

Causal Conditions

Position of managers
Power of managers



Phenomenon

Behaviour of managers with subordinates

Specific dimensions of Behaviour

Authoritarian (2D, p.62, p.90, p.211)
Don't like disagreement (2D, p.342,
p.412, 3B, p.58, p.62, p.154, p.414,
p.604)

Properties of Position and Power of manager

Superior (2D, p.64)

Authority (2D, p.64, p.211, p.516)

Context

Inability of employees to complain
about managers (12, p.94, p.524, p.526, p.528)

Intervening Conditions

Action/Interactional Strategies

Don't like questioning (2D, p.62)

Consequences

Autocratic behaviour with subordinates (2D, p.62, p.64, p.90, p.211, p.342, p.412)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 1, 3B, 9, 9B, 19

Causal Conditions

Lack of good reward systems



Phenomenon

Bribery

Specific dimensions of Bribery

Personal relations (19, p.434, p.550, p.648)

Gifts etc. (19, p.434, p.550, p.648)

Properties of Lack of good reward systems

Rigid (9, p.178, p.644)

Few (9, p.138, p.178, p.306, p.348)

Context

Special increments and promotion (3B, p.608, 9B, p.62, p.94b, p.528)

Intervening Conditions

Action/Interactional Strategies

Annual confidential reports by managers (1, p.708, p.748, 9B, p.62, p.94b, p.528)

Consequences

Unfair means for achieving special increments or promotion (19, p.434, p.436, p.550, p.645)

Axial Coding

CARDS:

Causal Conditions

Need for decisions



Phenomenon

Decisions

Specific dimensions of Decisions

Properties of need for decisions

Well thought out decisions (11, p.80, p.146, p.196, p.506, p.628)

Context

Well thought out decisions by individuals or groups (11, p.80, p.146, p.196, p.506, p.628)

Intervening Conditions

Action/Interactional Strategies

Consequences

Individuals decisions by managers (11, p.80, p.146, p.196, p.506, p.628)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 2, 2D, 3, 9B, 12

Causal Conditions

Managers don't like disagreement



Phenomenon

Suffer later on for complaint against managers

Specific dimensions of Complaint
against manager

Complaint to higher authority (12,
p.94, p.528)

Properties of Disagreement

Dislike disagreement (2, p.62, p.342, p.412)

Context

Employees afraid to disagree with manager
(2D, p.154, p.342, 412, 3, p.340, p.522)

Intervening Conditions

Action/Interactional Strategies

Annual confidential report by managers (9B, p.94b, p.528)

Consequences

No recommendation by manager for special increments or
promotion (12, p.94b, p.528)

Axial Coding

CARDS: 2, 3, 2D, 3B

Causal Conditions

Managers don't like questioning
and disagreement



Phenomenon

Autocratic

Specific dimensions of Autocratic
Very autocratic (2D, 22, p.90, p.211,
p.516)

Properties of Disagreement

Dislike (2D, 22, p.342, p.412, p.604)

Context

Employees reluctant to disagree
(3 and 22, p.340, p.522, p.570, p.602, p.634)
(3B, p.280)

Intervening Conditions

Action/Interactional Strategies

Employees obey every order of boss without questioning
(3, p.154, p.414, 3B, p.570, p.634, p.636)

Consequences

More submissive employees
(2, p.6, p.8, p.10, p.56, p.152, p.514, p.708, p.748)